The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 6, 1887.

The Week.

THE remarks made by Mr. Wm. P. St. John, President of the Mercantile National Bank, at the dinner of the Commercial Club of Providence, embody very sound opinions upon the silver question and the national-bank question, yet without carrying conviction that the plan which he favors is either feasible or desirable. The course of reasoning that he follows leads to the conclusion that the country can carry a great deal more silver in its circulation than it now carries, and that, therefore, it would be wise to come to an agreement with the silver men and fix the maximum amount of compulsory coinage now, at (say) $500,000,000. Mr. St. John points to the example of France to show that it does not follow that a great silver currency causes a nation to lose its gold, or prevents it from importing more gold. The fact stated by Mr. St. John, that France has made net gold imports of nearly $300,000,000 during the past eleven and one-half years, in spite of her $550,000,000 of silver coin, is a very telling one. It coincides with our own experience, which shows that the movement of gold to and from this country goes on regardless of the operations of the mint, being as indifferent to them, indeed, as to the production of Bessemer steel, or to the construction of cruisers for the navy. The significance of this fact will be learned after a little by the silver men themselves, and when they learn it they will stop the compulsory coinage without any bargain with the anti-silver men, provided they are not strong enough to secure free coinage.

The significance of the observed facts in both France and the United States is only half understood, or, at all events, only half explained, by Mr. St. John. He perceives clearly that movements of gold between the different nations are controlled by the balance of trade —not the balance shown by the custom-house, which may be very illusory, but the real balance of debit and credit arising from the exchange of all other things except gold. Now in countries where the gold standard prevails silver falls into the category of "all other things," no matter how much of it may be in circulation or in warehouse. That portion which is in circulation is three parts value and one part "fiat." The greenback is all fiat and no value whatever. Now if we can divest ourselves for a moment of all preconceptions concerning silver as a "precious metal"—a character which it does not now enjoy in the commercial world, except as platinum may be called one of the precious metals—we shall see that for all purposes of expelling gold the greenback dollar is quite as powerful an agent as the silver dollar under present conditions. What they might be under conditions of free silver coinage or of unlimited greenbacks it is not necessary now to inquire. We may play with silver as much as we like, and we may give it what names we like, its effect, so long as the gold dollar is *de facto* the standard and *de jure* the unit of value, as a gold-expelling agent is no greater than that of the greenback, but may conceivably be much less, since silver has intrinsic value equal to three-fourths of its face value. Mr. St. John seems to think that the coinage of some considerable amount of silver above $500,000,000 under the present law would expel gold and bring on some kind of crisis, and that therefore it would be wise to compromise on $500,000,000 as a maximum now. His apprehensions on this point coincide with the hopes of the silver men. If he or anybody can convince them that continued coinage will have the effect to expel gold and bring the country to the silver standard, no compromise can be got out of them, because that is just what they want. But evidence is not wanting that their leaders are becoming doubtful whether the $2,000,000 per month law, or anything less than free coinage, will bring the country to the silver standard. It was for this reason that Mr. Bland made such a vigorous push at the last session for the free coinage of silver. His failure has undoubtedly led him to contemplate the stoppage of the present coinage within some determined limit which shall have the appearance of a victory for the silverites.

Ex-Gov. Hoadly writes to us, as illustrating the needlessness of the Cullom and Reagan Inter-State Commerce Bills, that in Ohio, while he was Governor—that is, from January, 1884, to January, 1886—not one complaint of railroad management reached the office of the Commissioner of Railroads and Telegraphs, and he thinks this is also true of the past year. The only railroad trouble in Ohio, he says, arises out of the practice of discrimination between large and small shippers, and the courts have shown themselves fully able to take care of such cases without the aid of legislation. Since Judge Baxter removed Gen. Pease from his office as receiver of the Cleveland and Marietta Railroad for granting a rebate to the Standard Oil Company, and the Supreme Court enjoined any discrimination between large and small shippers in the case of Scofield vs. the Lake Shore Railway Company (43, Ohio State Reports, 571), there has been no doubt of the power of the courts to abate this evil. Within a fortnight, too, the Attorney-General of the State has begun proceedings in quo warranto to forfeit the charters of two other railroads for alleged discriminations of this kind.

The Chicago *Tribune*, discussing with Mr. Geo. R. Blanchard the same question as raised in the Inter-State Commerce Bill, makes the ingenious argument that since our long lines of railway from the Mississippi to the Atlantic are made up of separate lines pieced together, and since the operation of the short-haul section is limited by the words "under substantially similar circumstances and conditions," the short-haul clause does not necessarily apply to such long distances as between Milwaukee and New York. It says:

> "The bill does not legalize as great a rate from Racine and Evanston as from Milwaukee to New York, but leaves the associated carriers to justify it if they can. Nor does it require the charge between Racine and Evanston by a single common carrier to be determined or measured by any percentage the connecting roads between Milwaukee and New York may agree to pay the Milwaukee and St. Paul, be the same more or less; and it is just there that Mr. Blanchard misinterprets the bill— the result, doubtless, of hasty or superficial reading.
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> "The rate from St. Paul to New York must be fixed by a combination of carriers, each acting for and by itself; that from Racine to Evanston by a single carrier acting individually between its own terminals. The first transaction as compared with the second is remote and unrelated, and neither rate would be necessarily dependent on the other.
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> "The Milwaukee roads taking grain from Milwaukee to Chicago without loading at one point or unloading at the other would not perform the service under 'conditions and circumstances' similar to those in the case of a shipment between Racine and Evanston, where the roads would perform station services at each place."

This means that the bill is nugatory, or may be made so, as between connecting lines. That Senator Cullom does not so understand it is made plain by a letter addressed by him a few days ago to Mr. Datus C. Smith of New York, in which he says that "if goods or grain should be shipped from Chicago to New York on a given line of road, that road should not charge more from, say, Fort Wayne, if the line should be the Pennsylvania Road, to New York, than from Chicago to New York—not per mile, but the total or aggregate charge; Fort Wayne being 140 miles nearer New York than Chicago. The provision also says that the Commission may in special cases, on application by the railroad, after investigation, give the railroad relief from the operation of the short-haul provision if it sees proper to do so." As the distance from Fort Wayne to New York by any route requires a haul on two or three separate lines of railway, it is evident that Mr. Cullom does not see the matter in the same light as the Chicago *Tribune*.

The long-haul and short-haul question has been a subject of increasing agitation in England for some years, and is to be examined in Parliament in the course of the next session, together with other railway problems. The *Economist* considers the charging of a greater price for a short haul than for a long one on the same line of rails indefensible. The argument on the other side, which maintains that English railways must take goods destined for the Continent at any rate they can get above cost of hauling, or lose the traffic altogether, allowing it to pass into the hands of foreign competitors, to the detriment of English manufacturers, it meets by saying that this is requiring British consumers to pay an indirect tax to enable the producers to compete with the German, French, and Belgian manufacturers. The operation has this appearance undoubtedly, but the question is still to be answered, How would the consumer be helped by stopping the export trade, or that portion of it which depends upon the minimum freight

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charge and could not be carried on at all without it? Surely the railroads may be trusted to charge all that this traffic will bear. They will never let a penny slip through their fingers by reason of not charging enough. If the law steps in and says you shall not carry goods from Manchester to Dover for less than you charge from Manchester to any intermediate point, the railway will have to sacrifice one or the other sort of traffic. It will not sacrifice that portion from which it gets nine tenths of its revenue. It will let go the one-tenth. The nine-tenths will be no better, but may be worse off than before, as being called on to make good the loss of the one tenth.

Mr. A. J. Falls, a Washington attorney, is endeavoring to secure the passage of a bill, which Representative Morrow has in charge, providing for an appeal to the Attorney-General from decisions of the First Comptroller adverse to the claims of marshals and commissioners of the United States courts. It appears that the present Comptroller has been disallowing many claims for expenses and charges for services preferred by such officers, and pressed with great diligence by their attorneys in Washington, to the great consternation and loss of both, who had no idea that any Treasury official would attempt to deprive them of those perquisites which for so many years have been duly allowed when properly "looked after." These disallowances thus made must stand. It is not in the power of the President or of the Secretary of the Treasury to change or reverse any of the Comptroller's decisions. The right to do so was constantly claimed by heads of departments from the beginning of our Government. It was strengthened by opinions of attorneys-general, and frequently admitted by the accounting officers, but at last the vexed question, which had caused in the Treasury more dispute than any other, was set at rest by the act of 1868, which declared the decisions of the Comptroller conclusive upon the executive branch of the Government. The bill in question, if it should become a law, would constitute an exception to this act of 1868, for the Attorney-General is now a part of the executive branch of the Government, he having been made the head of the Department of Justice in 1870. And of all the heads of departments, he is the last who should be permitted to disturb the rulings of the Comptroller upon the accounts of marshals and other officers of the United States courts, for the very excellent reason that he is their head. They are his subordinates; many of them are his appointees; he approves their accounts before they are submitted to the Comptroller; he is in consequence naturally prejudiced in their favor.

But there is no good reason why any claimant dissatisfied with a decision of a comptroller should not be allowed, without unreasonable delay or expense, to attack the grounds upon which it rests, before some appellate tribunal having jurisdiction only of such cases. There are thousands of instances in which an appeal to the Court of Claims is out of the question, because the amount involved is small; and a petition addressed to Congress is labor lost, for the reason, as Mr. Springer has lately said in his report, that the history of past legislation shows that only a fraction over 1 per cent. of the bills introduced for the relief of citizens for private and domestic claims against the Government (not including war claims) pass that body. The right of appeal would cause more consideration to be given to claims in the first instance by comptrollers, and it would diminish the labor of the Congressional Committee on "Private Claims." Indeed, it might be enacted that the adverse decision of the appellate tribunal should be the end of the matter. Why can we not have in the Treasury a method of procedure similar to that of the Patent Office, which has proved so satisfactory, namely, an appeal from one comptroller to the Board of Comptrollers, and from it, if it should be found necessary, to some one supreme over all?

"The proposition to make the small, illiterate, ill-assorted, three-fourths 'Greaser' population of New Mexico a State with two Senators, a Congressman, and three electoral votes, is one which even the most partisan Democrat should hesitate to press," says a Republican organ, and very properly too. But it is only fair to remember that a dozen years ago a Republican House did not "hesitate to press" and to adopt this same proposition. In May, 1874, a bill for the admission of New Mexico as a State passed the lower branch of Congress, then Republican by more than two to one, by an overwhelming majority; Mr. Kasson of Iowa rebuking a criticism of the illiteracy of the population, on the ground that such talk was unworthy a party which had given suffrage to 4,000,000 negroes in the South. But it must be remembered that in 1874 "Steve" Elkins was delegate from New Mexico, and the Republicans then expected the Territory to be a Republican State. "Circumstances alter cases."

Mayor O'Brien promptly justified the confidence of the Independents who supported him for a third term, by two vetoes which he sent to the Boston City Council on Monday week. One refused his signature to an order rescinding the proviso attached to the police item in the Appropriation Bill, that no money should be expended for the police signal system—on the grounds that if the Police Commissioners had, as was reported, contracted certain bills for the signal system in disregard of a direct prohibition, they should not be relieved from responsibility in the matter, and that every department must live up to the letter of the city charter, which forbids the incurring of liabilities for any purpose beyond the appropriation duly made therefor. The other veto was of an order requesting the Mayor to petition the Legislature for an act raising the limit of indebtedness established for next year from 2 per cent. to 2½ per cent., Mr. O'Brien holding that the act ought to have a fair trial, and that "it will be a check on extravagant schemes and expenditures which speculators are preparing to force upon the city." Both vetoes were sustained, and the Mayor's defence of the taxpayers' claims in the latter case was so unanswerable that only one Alderman voted to override him.

A gentleman who is interested in the question how the practice of "trading" and "selling out" at the polls shall be broken up, calls our attention to the system adopted in Boston. At the recent municipal election the "regular Republican ticket" bore this inscription: "This certifies that this ballot is the regular and genuine ballot of the Republican party, to be used at the election on December 14, 1886, in the city of Boston," with facsimiles of the signatures of the President and Treasurer of the Republican City Committee. In like manner the "regular Democratic ticket" bore a certificate, signed by the Chairman of the Printing Committee, that "this ballot contains only the regular Democratic nominees, and is issued by the Democratic City Committee of Boston." Such a certificate is an important aid to the identification of the ticket and a serious obstacle to the business of trading, and therefore a great advance upon the system—or rather lack of system—which we have in this city. But it ought to be possible to make improvements upon this, and it would hardly be possible to do a greater service in the cause of honest politics just now than to devise a practicable plan for State supervision of the distribution of ballots, to be submitted to the approaching Constitutional Convention.

The Prohibitionists are so much encouraged by the large increase in their vote at the recent elections that they are already reorganizing for the next campaign. The State Central Committee of the party in Minnesota recently held a meeting and laid plans for holding meetings throughout the State and for circulating prohibition literature. Great reliance is felt in this method of proselyting; and the fact that the steady increase in the number of newspapers devoted to the cause is accompanied by a similar growth in the dimensions of the party vote, appears to justify the confidence of the managers. Nowhere are any signs of weakening to be detected. On the contrary, the believers in prohibition appear to be resolved to make a stronger fight in 1888 than they did in 1884.

We spoke last week of the evil effects on the young rowdy population of this city of "Fatty" Walsh's appointment, owing to the fact that his career has been precisely that on which a large proportion of them are entering, or think they are entering. He began what we may call his public life as a member of the gang known as the "Dead Rabbits," who were a great terror to the city and trouble to the police before the war. The *Evening Post* reproduces from the columns of the New York *Times* of 1859 an account of his training for a prize-fight, as the custom is among the more muscular young men of his class. His opponent was "Mike" Norton, now another successful municipal statesman of the same school, for he has secured the

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position of Civil Justice in the First District. The fight never came off, as the two young ruffians were captured and brought up before Mayor Tiemann. After that, Walsh's career followed the regular course. His pugilistic prowess raised him to eminence in ward politics. Eminence in ward politics made him influential with the police and District Attorney, so that he was able, during the next twenty years, or until he began to get old, to go on with impunity assaulting, fighting, carrying concealed weapons, getting drunk, gambling, opening liquor-stores and gambling-houses, cheating at the elections and in the primaries, or, in other words, leading a life of crime and vice. When hauled up, as he was two years ago for keeping a gambling house, he had only to tell the District Attorney that he had "reformed" in order to get the matter dropped.

Now, as we have said, Walsh's career is that which thousands of men in this city are following, and which thousands more mean to follow if they can. They form a stream of vice and crime which our religious people and philanthropists are constantly struggling to stem, and too often feel that they are struggling in vain. It was to keep these men out of the public service, and above all to keep their protégés and cronies out of it, that the Civil-Service Act was passed and made compulsory in the great cities. What, then, must be the effect on this vicious, idle, and lawless element of seeing one of their own chiefs and heroes, a man whose whole life has been a defiance of law and a menace to order, actually put in charge of the prison in which malefactors await their trial? We understand Commissioner Porter, who helped to appoint Walsh, is wagging his head, Hedden fashion, and declaring that he knows what he is about, and does not mind what the newspapers say, and is sure that "Walsh is a good man for the place." But how does he know it? He has not a single reason for supposing it. The only way of knowing whether a man is good for any place, is by observation of his character and career. If his life has been a vicious one, and he has never followed any regular calling, all the marks of fitness for any place of trust, however small, are wanting. We venture to assert there is not a business man in this city who would take Walsh as a janitor or elevator-man. Moreover, if the Commissioners, and men like Mr. Beekman, now in office, who signed Walsh's recommendation, suppose that this little escapade of theirs is going to be forgotten after they get Walsh into the place, they are hugely mistaken. It will never be forgotten as long as they show their noses in public life. People cannot afford in our time to overlook gentlemen who think old criminals are just the men to have charge of jails. There is something "distingué" about this which is a sure protection against oblivion.

The advantages of the fourteen years' term for judges of the courts of record, have been well illustrated during the past few days in the formalities which have attended the retirement of Judges Davis and Van Vorst from the bench of the Supreme Court. Fourteen years is about equivalent on the average to a life tenure, because it is not often that a man who has reached the age at which he becomes a suitable candidate for judicial honors has more than fourteen years' good work left in him. But in addition to this it is long enough to enable a good judge to make both a personal and professional impression on the bar and the public, and to make the close of his term an event which touches the imagination of everybody who cares to see the laws faithfully executed. The retirement of Judge Daly last year, and the retirement of Judges Davis and Van Vorst this year, are occurrences, therefore, which even those who care least for ceremony do not feel disposed to let pass unnoticed. Judge Davis has been an able and upright judge, who has carried his court through very exciting times without any other impeachment of his integrity than that he was too good a Republican, and too well satisfied that only half the American people had any interest in the maintenance of the Government, to hold the scales with an impartiality which all men would acknowledge. But this was a fault from which the greatest judicial luminaries both here and in England have not been exempt, and against which men of strong natures and decided opinions find it almost impossible to guard themselves. Those who love to see a judge live in a wholly judicial atmosphere, and to pursue without fear and without reproach, but most quietly and unostentatiously, the path of judicial duty, will find Judge Van Vorst a more attractive figure. When he left the bench, it lost a good man, in all senses of the word—an upright magistrate, whose integrity of purpose no one has ever had reason to question, and who will be followed into well-won repose by everybody's thanks and good wishes. Both judges have done honor to the elective system to which they owed their elevation.

There are a great many side-lights thrown upon American history in the biography of Abraham Lincoln by John G. Nicolay and John Hay, which seems likely to take a high place in our political literature. One of the most valuable of these, illustrating the character and forecast of Mr. Lincoln himself, is an extract from a letter written by him December 17, 1840, soon after the election of President Harrison, to John T. Stuart, member of Congress from the Springfield, Ill., district. Mr. Stuart and Mr. Lincoln were entitled, according to party usage, to the "patronage of the district." Mr. Lincoln, however, privately advised Mr. Stuart that he was not in favor of removing postmasters for mere political differences. He said:

> "This affair of appointments to office is very annoying, more so to you than to me doubtless. *I am, as you know, opposed to removals to make places for our friends.* Bearing this in mind I express my preferences in a few cases, as follows, etc."

In other words, although there was no Civil-Service Reform Society in existence, or even dreamed of, Mr. Lincoln was a civil-service reformer at heart. The letter now published was written only for the eye of the person to whom it was addressed. It was a confidential communication. It expressed his inmost thought, and we cannot doubt that the motive which prompted him to give this advice to his friend Congressman Stuart was a lively sense of the dangers of the spoils system inaugurated in the Presidency of Gen. Jackson, twelve years before. It is no small thing to have the testimony of Mr. Lincoln, obtained in this way, recorded in behalf of civil-service reform. It may be said that when Mr. Lincoln himself became President he did not act upon the principles laid down in this letter. But such a criticism has no force, since the torrent of war which met him at the threshold of office never gave him rest or opportunity to consider any policies unconnected with secession and slavery.

The steady improvement of business is freshly illustrated by the report of the Massachusetts Savings Bank Commissioners for the year ending with October. The amount of deposits is $16,199,488 larger than in 1885, which is a gain of nearly one-third upon the increase in 1885 over the record in 1884. There is no more sensitive business barometer than the savings bank, and the uniformity with which large gains in deposits are shown by the reports in the different States is therefore a matter of much significance. The improvement of business is not the only cause of this increase in savings. Another important element is the continued and growing cheapness of provisions. Tables compiled by the *American Grocer* show that the wholesale cost of staple articles of food has, with one or two exceptions, been lower in 1886 than in 1885, the average price of flour, $4.43 per barrel for straight winter wheat, being the lowest on record. It seems quite safe to say that it costs less to live now than at any previous time for a generation.

That the abolition of slavery was a boon to the South, solely from the material point of view, is already capable of demonstration. The Charleston *News and Courier* has just established this fact beyond question, so far as the State of South Carolina is concerned, by a comparison of its condition in the year before the war with the record for 1886. Last year the total value of the farm products was $44,109,501, which, despite the decline in prices of late, is very nearly as much as the value in 1860, while the number of manufacturing establishments has advanced during this period from 1,230 to 3,242, the capital invested has more than trebled, the number of hands employed has increased nearly five-fold, and the value of the products now reaches $29,951,551. Adding to agricultural products the products in the different branches of manufacturing and the outputs of the mines and quarries, the *News and Courier* considers it evident that the total income of the State is now fully 50 per cent. larger under freedom than in the most prosperous era of slavery. Allowing for the increase in population, the average income of each person is already about as large as before the war, and is growing larger rapidly every year. It is evident that the time for speaking of the South as "still impoverished by the war" has passed, and that in fact she is already better off than before the outbreak of the rebellion.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, December 29, 1886, to TUESDAY, January 4, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT CLEVELAND resumed his official duties on Tuesday, though still suffering from rheumatic pains.

President Cleveland some months ago withdrew his name as honorary Vice-President of the American Exhibition in England.

The public-debt reduction during December was $9,358,202.

The body of Senator Logan, after brief ceremonies at his late residence, was on Thursday afternoon taken to the Senate Chamber, where it lay in state until Friday. At noon the funeral services were held in the presence of a distinguished assembly. The solemn services were begun by the reading of the Ninth Psalm by Bishop Andrews. Dr. Butler read as the burial service a portion of the Fifteenth Corinthians. Prayer was offered by Dr. Tiffany, and the funeral sermon was delivered by Dr. Newman. The body was then taken to Rock Creek Cemetery for temporary interment in a vault.

A movement has been started in Chicago to pay off Gen. Logan's debts, which amount to $30,000. This is in addition to the amount that is being raised for Mrs. Logan.

The Civil-Service Commissioners, after a careful investigation of the New York Custom-house, have submitted a report to the President recommending that promotion be made from class to class by a process of examination, upon certification of the whole list of eligibles to the promoting officer. The regulations which the President is considering will supersede the so-called "Hayes rules," under which promotions have heretofore been made in the New York Custom-house.

A movement is in progress among Southern men in Congress who are in favor of the reduction of the surplus, to form a combination by which the taxes upon fruit brandy and tobacco and its manufactures shall be abolished, and there is some expectation that Mr. Randall will coöperate in this scheme. It is also said by Democrats who ought to know that Mr. Morrison, during the holiday recess, has become convinced that it will be expedient for him to move again to consider revenue bills, and that it is not improbable that he will have a larger vote than he had before.

Prior to the recent discussion of the Inter-State Commerce Bill, the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association of Cincinnati passed a resolution endorsing the measure and urging its adoption. On Thursday, after discussion, the former action was rescinded, and a resolution adopted setting forth that the bill in question in some of its features aims at a radical interference with the business interests of the country.

Mr. V. P. Snyder, Deputy Comptroller of the Currency, was on Saturday appointed Examiner of National Banks at the cities of New York, Brooklyn, and Jersey City, in place of Mr. A. M. Scriba.

The New York Legislature convened at 11 A. M. on Tuesday at Albany. James W. Husted (having received the caucus nomination of the Republicans) was elected Speaker of the Assembly by 73 votes to 51 for W. F. Sheehan (Dem.). Charles A. Chickering (Rep.) was reëlected Clerk.

The annual message of Gov. Hill was sent to the New York Legislature on Tuesday. He renews and enumerates sixteen recommendations of his previous messages which have not yet been embodied in legislation. Among the new recommendations which he makes are the following: (1) Some means to lessen the present burden of taxation on real estate, and provide for the taxation of that species of property which now almost entirely escapes assessment, to wit, the indebtedness of corporations, joint-stock companies and associations represented in the scrip, bonds, or certificates of indebtedness issued by such bodies. (2) A representation of all interests of the State in the coming Constitutional Convention. It is suggested that the Convention should consist of 110 delegates, of which 68 should be elected by districts, 2 from each Congressional district, and 42 should be elected from the State at large, no elector being permitted to vote for more than 15 delegates, and the 42 delegates receiving respectively the highest number of votes should be declared elected. (3) A legal holiday to be known as "Labor Day"; a special labor commission to examine the whole subject of the grievances of labor; and the making of manual training a part of the public-school system.

Presiding Justice Noah Davis of the Supreme Court of this city was on Thursday presented with an engrossed address by the New York bar in view of his retirement from the bench after a service of twenty-six years. His portrait by Huntington was presented to the Supreme Court. A reception was given him by the Bar Association in the evening.

Abram S. Hewitt sent his first message as Mayor of New York city to the Board of Aldermen on Monday. In it he says: "The change in the law which gave the appointment of commissioners to the Mayor has enabled my predecessor to make eight appointments by which the character of the commissions has been greatly improved. So far as the appointments may be made during my term of office, I shall endeavor not to fall below the standard of excellence which he has set up. Inasmuch, however, as I am necessarily lacking at the outset in the knowledge of municipal government which, fortunately, my predecessor possessed when his power of appointment was enlarged, I shall endeavor to supply it from the larger experience of the heads of departments, by calling them together from time to time for consultation. This course would seem to be especially necessary in view of the fact that the Legislature will begin its annual session to-morrow, and will be asked to consider measures of vital consequence to the city." He proposes to have a thorough investigation made by the Commissioners of Accounts before making any specific reform recommendations.

The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania rendered on Monday a decision relative to the penal statute of May 21, 1885, prohibiting the manufacture and sale of oleomargarine, which declares the law to be constitutional and valid.

Official count of the vote on the Minnesota State ticket was made on Monday. The result on Governor was: A. R. McGill (Rep.), 107,064; A. A. Ames (Dem.), 104,464; T. E. Childs (Proh.), 18,966; scattering, 37. Dr. Ames will contest the election.

The County Judges of the drought-stricken district of Texas met recently. Twenty counties were represented. They reported in the aggregate 27,900 persons in actual need of food and clothing. They have made an official report and published an appeal to the Legislature, and ask the endorsement of the Governor. They also make an appeal to charitable people for immediate relief.

It is announced that John Roach, the shipbuilder, is suffering from a cancer in the mouth, and that there is no longer any hope of his recovery.

James A. McMaster, for forty years the editor of the *Freeman's Journal*, a well-known Roman Catholic paper in this city, died on Wednesday in Brooklyn, aged sixty-seven years. In 1862 he was imprisoned in Fort Lafayette for publishing articles in favor of the rebellion.

Gen. William W. Loring (Loring Pasha) died at the St. Denis Hotel in this city on Thursday evening, having been taken ill with pneumonia on Wednesday. He was born in North Carolina in 1817. His father died at sea when he was a child, and the family moved to Florida. The son, as a boy, was a volunteer in the Seminole war, then became a student at Georgetown, D. C., and next studied law. He was a member of the first Legislature of Florida. In May, 1846, he was appointed a captain of Mounted Rifles, United States Army. Serving through the Mexican war, he lost an arm at Chapultepec, and was promoted for gallantry to the rank of Lieutenant-Colonel. After that he was actively engaged in Indian warfare. He resigned from the army at the outbreak of the Rebellion and joined the Confederate service, in which he became a Major-General. In 1868 Gen. Loring accepted an offer from the Khedive of Egypt to take a position in his army, and remained there ten years, during which he held the rank of General, or Pasha, and was engaged in active service against the Abyssinians. He returned to this country with a competency, and invested largely in orange-groves and real estate in Florida. About three years ago he published 'A Confederate Soldier in Egypt,' a book descriptive of life in the Khedive's army, and at the time of his death was engaged in writing an autobiography.

Hilborne L. Roosevelt died on Thursday in this city. He was thirty-seven years old. While very young he studied the manufacture of church organs, and then made several trips to Europe for the same object. He identified himself particularly with electric inventions as applied to organ building, which he began in this city on his own account in 1871. Among the organs that he built were those in the Garden City Cathedral, in Grace Church, and in the main building of the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia. Mr. Roosevelt invented several important details of the telephone.

Ex-Gov. Gibbs, known as the War Governor of Oregon, died in London on Thursday. He had been lecturing on temperance in Great Britain.

Gen. Albert Gallatin Lawrence of Newport, R. I., died on Saturday night, aged fifty-two years. A son of the late William Beach Lawrence, he served with conspicuous gallantry in the war, and particularly distinguished himself at the capture of Fort Fisher. After the war he was appointed Minister to Costa Rica.

Gen. George W. Palmer died on Sunday evening at his home in this city. He was born in Ripley, Chautauqua County, in 1835. When the war broke out he went to Washington, was soon appointed in the War Department, and held various military positions at Washington and in this State. In 1869 he took up the practice of law in this city and was appointed Appraiser of the Port. He resumed the practice of his profession in 1871. He was prominent in Republican political circles.

Bishop Horatio Potter, of the Protestant Episcopal diocese of New York, died on Sunday at his home in this city, after several years of bodily feebleness. His last appearance in public service was on Ascension Day in 1883, when he administered the rite of Confirmation in the Church of the Incarnation. He was born in Dutchess County, N. Y., on February 9, 1802, was graduated from Union College in 1826, and ordained a deacon in the following year. In 1833 he became rector of St. Peter's Church, Albany, and he retained that position until September, 1854, when he was elected Provisional Bishop of the diocese of New York. In 1861, on the death of Bishop Onderdonk, who was under suspension at the time of his death, he succeeded to the full Bishopric. He performed the laborious duties of his office with marked ability and faithfulness. In September, 1883, he was relieved of diocesan duties by the election of the Rev. Dr. Henry C. Potter, his nephew, as Assistant Bishop, who will succeed him as Bishop.

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FOREIGN.

From a private letter of the Marquis of Salisbury the following account of the origin of the British Cabinet crisis is given: About two weeks ago Lord Randolph Churchill informed Lord Salisbury that unless the total army and navy estimates were very considerably below those of last year he would not continue as Chancellor of the Exchequer. After a discussion with the departments he resigned office in a letter which Salisbury received on Tuesday, December 21. Salisbury replied to his arguments, and said he could not take the responsibility of refusing the heads of the War Department and the Admiralty the sums which, after prolonged consideration, they thought necessary for the defence of the country, and least of all could he refuse the funds necessary for defending the ports and coaling stations, to which point Churchill had taken most objection. Churchill replied in a letter which Salisbury received at one A. M. on Thursday (Dec. 23), confirming his intention of resigning, and mentioning, much in the language used in his communication to the *Times*, his dissatisfaction with the legislative programme of the Government. Churchill had not before alluded to this subject in connection with his resignation. A few hours later the announcement of the resignation appeared in the *Times*.

Mr. George J. Goschen (Liberal Unionist) has finally consented to join the Tory Government, succeeding Lord Randolph Churchill as Chancellor of the Exchequer. The fact was officially announced on Monday. Lord Hartington fully approves Mr. Goschen's course. He joins the Ministry, the London *Times* says, on the understanding that he does so as a Liberal, and that his object is to strengthen the Unionist cause. He desires to be satisfied that he is in agreement with the Government on all important foreign and domestic questions. Mr. Goschen has not been offered the leadership of the Government in the House of Commons, but that will naturally revert to him after the pro tem. lead of Mr. W. H. Smith. Lord Salisbury has assured Lord Hartington that he is trying, with some hope of success, to overcome the reluctance of the Conservatives to accept Lord Hartington as Prime Minister.

Before accepting office in the Tory Cabinet, Mr. Goschen closely scrutinized the accounts and estimates of the War and Navy Departments in order to ascertain whether or not there were any grounds for Lord Randolph Churchill's charges of maladministration. He found that Lord Randolph had been misled by wrong data, which it is supposed were supplied through interested Treasury officials. Mr. Goschen is convinced that Lord Randolph is unable to prove his allegations, and that Lord Salisbury was right in refusing to reduce the estimates.

It is considered improbable that a change will be made in the British Foreign Office. Lord Iddesleigh denies that he has expressed a wish to retire, and Lord Morley denies that he has been offered the foreign portfolio. The Earl of Northbrook has consented to join Mr. Goschen in the Conservative Cabinet. He has heretofore been hostile to Lord Salisbury's foreign and Indian policies. He is suspected of sympathy with Mr. Gladstone. Mr. W. H. Smith has accepted the leadership of the House of Commons.

The *Pall Mall Gazette* asserts that Mr. Chamberlain has consented to have a private informal conference on the Irish question with Mr. Gladstone, Mr. Morley, and Sir William Vernon-Harcourt. Mr. Chamberlain denies this.

Mr. Gladstone, in a letter to Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, has expressed his willingness for a free discussion of the differences in the Liberal party. The Birmingham *Post* announces that Sir William Vernon-Harcourt, Lord Herschell, Mr. Morley, Mr. Chamberlain, and Sir George Trevelyan will meet, probably next week, to discuss the Irish question in the spirit of Mr. Gladstone's letter.

The seventy-seventh anniversary of Mr. Gladstone's birth was celebrated on Wednesday by Liberal banquets in many places. Mr. Gladstone wrote as follows to the chairman of a banquet given at Chester in his honor: "The strain of the last year has been considerable, but never during my half century of labor have I more clearly seen that I was at work in behalf of my countrymen in all parts of the three kingdoms, and in behalf of the true union and greatness of the Empire, which in this year of her Majesty's jubilee we ought to cherish more warmly and loyally than ever. In this conviction the recent progress of events confirms me daily."

Mr. Gladstone, in his article in the *Nineteenth Century* on "Locksley Hall and the Jubilee," after praising the Laureate's verse, deals with the teachings of the poem. He admits that no greater calamity could happen to a people than that of breaking utterly from its past. This applies, however, he says, more to the aggregate than the immediate past. In the first three decades of this century England won great military glory, but her industry was brought to the lowest point of degradation. With the history of these three decades he says the history of the past fifty years contrasts favorably. He expresses the hope that his article will show that England is still young, though old, and in her latest days has not been unworthy of herself.

Mr. John Morley, writing in reply to Mr. A. V. Dicey's book on Ireland, argues that the question is not a theorem, but a problem; that it is not a matter of proving a thesis, but of curing a malady. If home rule is too mischievous to be tolerated, so is everything else. A crown colony is opposed to the Union; Irish representation is opposed to the Union. A provisional legislature on the model of the Legislature of Ontario or Quebec would be worse than repeal, and a local government would cure nothing and disturb everybody.

Mr. John Dillon on Thursday deposited £1,000 bail required by the recent decision against him in Dublin for agitating the plan of campaign.

Bernard Kelly, Parnellite M. P. for South Donegal, died suddenly on Sunday while visiting his constituents. He was secretary of the local branch of the National League and the son of a large merchant in Ballyshannon.

The Paris correspondent of the London *Times* affirmed on Thursday that he had information from an undoubted source that Russia and Germany signed a direct alliance a fortnight ago. "The Czar," said the correspondent, "was decided in taking this course by the attitude manifested towards Russia by Count Kálnoky, Austrian Minister of Foreign Affairs, and by the expectation that M. Floquet would be made Prime Minister of France."

Dr. Blowitz says that by the terms of this new alliance Russia binds herself to remain neutral in the event of war between France and Germany, and Germany binds herself to remain neutral in the event of war between Russia and Austria.

It is reported in Vienna that the German Government has assured Count Kálnoky that the statement that a treaty has been concluded between Germany and Russia to the detriment of Austrian interests, is not true.

Russia has suggested as a basis for negotiations between the signatories to the Berlin treaty for the settlement of the Bulgarian question that the Bulgarian regents resign; that a new Sobranye be elected for Bulgaria only; that two Zankoffites be admitted into the Bulgarian Cabinet; that Prince Nicholas of Mingrelia be proposed to the new Sobranye for the Bulgarian rulership, and that an ordinary provincial assembly be convoked for Rumelia.

Russia has concluded arrangements for obtaining from the Hersants of Paris a loan of 75,000,000 francs. The money is to be expended in constructing a canal from the eastern extremity of the Gulf of Perekop in the Black Sea, across the neck of land joining the Crimea to the mainland, to the Sea of Azov, in order to afford a direct water route from the river Don to the Black Sea.

The Vienna press is becoming convinced that Russia is determined on war. Reports of increased Russian armaments are continually coming to hand from various sources. The latest intelligence of this kind is to the effect that 300,000 Russian troops have been ordered to mass in Kieff, and that the occupants of 10,000 houses have received official notification that soldiers will soon be billeted on them.

The Servian Government has opened confidential negotiations for a confederation of the various Balkan States in the event of war.

M. Clémenceau in a recent interview said: "There can be no war between France and Germany unless Germany makes the first attack, because every responsible Frenchman is determined that France shall offer no provocation. Even if Russia and Germany should fight, France would remain passive. It would require a gross provocation indeed to rouse France to war. Of course, France will refuse to disarm. It must be admitted that France has been coquetting with Russia, but this was intended merely to frighten Germany."

At a recent grand reception given to the officers of the army by the Minister of War, Gen. Boulanger emphatically disclaimed the warlike intentions ascribed to him in Germany.

Diplomats consider the statements made by the French Government organs that Gen. Boulanger had not reduced his supplemental military estimates from $60,000,000 to $10,000,000, coupled with the *Journal Officiel's* list of his reappointments of the generals in command of the French fortresses, another evidence that war is not remote.

It is reported that a conference has been held by President Grévy and MM. Ferry and Freycinet with a view to the speedy dissolution of the present Ministry and the formation of a Ferry-Freycinet Cabinet. It is also reported that M. Ferry has consented to support M. Freycinet as the successor of President Grévy. The Radicals are in high dudgeon at the prospect of having their plans upset in this manner.

It has been decided that M. de Brazza shall be permitted to return to the French Congo country, and there dispose of the grant made by the Chamber of Deputies in the manner he may deem best.

Madagascar has concluded arrangements for obtaining a loan of $3,000,000 for twenty-five years at 6 per cent. per annum from the Comptoir Escompte of Paris, guaranteeing therefor the customs revenue of six of the Madagascar ports. Of this sum $2,000,000 is to be devoted to paying off the French indemnity, and the balance will be expended on the native army.

It is rumored that Rasalula, the Abyssinian commander who undertook the relief of Kassala, which has been besieged by the followers of the late El Mahdi for upwards of two years, has succeeded in rescuing the city from the Arabs. Another report states that the dervishes defeated the Abyssinians at Sabderat.

The German Reichstag will meet on the 4th of January, the Army Bill Committee on the 5th, and the Landtag on the 12th.

Should the United States Congress reject the new treaty with Spain, a duty of 25 per cent. will be levied on American imports, and the Spanish Government will immediately make overtures to other European Powers in order to obtain new markets for West Indian exports. Spanish statesmen of all parties look with uneasiness and jealousy upon the increasing intimacy of the relations between Cuba and Porto Rico on the one hand and the United States on the other.

The followers of King Bo-Shwé, after his flight into the impenetrable forests of Burmah, submitted to the British authorities.

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SALARIES OF THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT JUDGES.

THE bill, which has passed the Senate more than once, to increase the salaries of the United States district judges, has been somewhat unfairly treated by the Judiciary Committee of the House. If brought to a vote, it would almost certainly pass, but the dominating influence of the Southern members of the Committee, for reasons not difficult of explanation, has been sufficient to smother it, notwithstanding a favorable report by a bare majority of the Committee. Except in cases controlled by paramount political considerations, either house should always facilitate a vote upon any public bill that has passed the other, and the process of strangling a measure, so situated, by hostile committees, cannot be in the interest of wholesome legislation. The practice too often permits the prejudices of one or two men to obstruct the wishes of a large majority of both houses of Congress. Because of this unfair treatment in the House, the Senate attached the bill it had previously passed, as an amendment to a bill passed in the House to create a new district in one of the Southern States. Reluctantly, this plan of forcing the measure to a vote in the House was abandoned by its friends, upon the hope, if not the promise, that at the present session the Committee in the House would permit a vote upon the Senate bill.

There is not much room for any argument against the increase of salary. The standard already fixed for the circuit judges is a meagre enough measure of compensation for all the judges. If travelling expenses be paid by the Government, or an allowance for them be added to the salaries of the circuit judges, there is no substantial reason for any discrimination between them and the district judges. In any given district the district judge does the greatest part of the work of the Circuit Court in addition to that which he does in the District Court. There should not be two courts, and there is no necessity for two judges of the same court; but this is not the fault of the judges, and the district judges are not those that could be dispensed with as superfluous. Doing as much work as or more than the circuit judges, there is no just reason for paying the district judges less salary; and, in one sense, it is degrading to them and the judgments they give, by far the most numerous in the court, to pay them unequally. All discriminations, whether of pay or rank, are injurious to the public service, and this is a most serious objection to the existing judicial system. The judges of a court being coördinate in authority, as the several judges holding a circuit court are, should be co-equal in both rank and pay. These judges are in fact, in practice, and in theory the equals of each other, except that certain necessary provisions, growing out of the absurdities of the system, are made for proceeding with a case when they disagree in judgment. Sitting alone, either of them is the equal of the other, and, sitting together, no other inequality should exist than that just mentioned. For the time being the judgment of the circuit judge prevails, as does that of the Supreme justice over his, when these two sit together; but the very fact of disagreement formerly suspended the case until the Supreme Court could decide between them, and now affords a basis of appeal without regard to amount, after the final judgment according to the opinion of the presiding judge.

There can be, then, no reason for paying one more than the other, expenses of travel excepted; and it was generally understood, when the salaries of the circuit judges were increased to $6,000, that those of the district judges should be fixed at $5,000. The delay in doing this has been caused by the subsequent difference in the political complexion of the two houses of Congress, and a feeling that the salaries of the district judges should be graded according to the amount of work done by each. How far the fact that nearly all the judges of all the courts belonged to one political party—a deplorable fact, no doubt—has influenced the neglect of the district judges, may be conjectural; but, whatever has been that influence, it should no longer operate, since the remedy is being rapidly applied as vacancies occur. Political considerations are unworthy of attention from any source in regard to this matter, and, perhaps, no member of Congress would confess that any such influence controls him. With possibly some rare exceptions, anomalous in their character, it may be affirmed that the judges of the United States courts have been commendably free from political motives in the discharge of official duties. These courts and their judges have not been exempt from that hostility which arises from the innate prejudices on the one hand of an exaggerated local opinion in favor of States' rights, or, on the other, from the favoritism which follows undue exaltation of the Federal notion; but, after all, they succeed in meeting the demands of the most intelligent public opinion for a judiciary that shall be reasonably free, in the judgments which they give, from bias in either direction.

The argument that the salaries should be graded is, under the circumstances, delusive, although speciously so. An act of Congress properly and sternly forbids all the judges from practising law or acting as counsel. Presumably, none of them has either a taste for or any adaptation by experience to any other remunerative calling. And it is wholly undesirable that the judges should engage in money-making pursuits—certainly in corporate enterprises, manufacturing concerns, stock speculations, or other doubtful employments, which, for obvious reasons, unfit any man for the judicial office. This is too plain to require anything more than a statement of the proposition to enforce it; and as long as Congress requires the judges to abstain from professional labor, it in effect disables them from all labor that would add anything to their salary as a means of support for themselves and their families. If the salaries were $500 a year, abundant applicants would offer for every place, no doubt, but the United States should pay a fair salary to secure the ablest men, and tolerate none other.

Much has been made of the singular suggestion that these judges should not be paid more than the State judges are paid. This would enable a parsimonious local influence to regulate the salaries of the national courts, and, in some States, deprive those judges of just compensation. The argument is the outgrowth of mere prejudice against the Federal courts, and is not entitled to the least serious consideration. The United States should set a good example, and not follow a bad one in deference to provincial prejudices of that kind.

TOBACCO.

IT is customary to include the tobacco tax among "taxes on luxuries," and to point to it as an ideal source of revenue because nobody need pay it unless he chooses to do so. As compared with many other taxes, this is a correct description. Taxes on food and clothing are much more objectionable, whether levied under the tariff or otherwise. A statesman unbiassed by the demands of special interests, and looking only to the good of the community as a whole, would knock off thousands of other taxes before he would reduce that on tobacco, and he would do so in the interest of the poorer classes. He would first cheapen their sugar and their salt, their shirts and blankets, their medicines and their tools, before he would think of cheapening their tobacco. Yet it is not exactly right to say that the tobacco tax should be retained as long as the Government needs any revenue.

The dividing line between necessaries, comforts, and luxuries is a hard one to draw. The East Indian coolie can live on rice of a poor quality flavored with salt and washed down with common spring water. The West Indian laborer is compelled not seldom to subsist on this sort of diet with yams in place of rice, and the Irish cotter with potatoes instead of either. These, or their equivalent in corn-meal, or dates, or chestnuts, may be called the actual necessaries of life as regards food. Of course no one will consider that as necessary which civilized men never felt the need of, or knew the existence of, until the time of Sir Walter Raleigh. As the Romans conquered the world without using tobacco in any form, it cannot be considered an article indispensable to the dominant races. As neither Homer, nor Dante, nor Shakspere smoked or chewed, it cannot be regarded as essential to the highest intellectual activity.

Tobacco must be rated either as a comfort or as a luxury. Our treatment of it as a source of revenue will depend very much upon which category we put it into. If it is, strictly speaking, a luxury, then the tax should be retained, or at all events should not be disturbed at present. If it is a comfort depended upon by large numbers of poor people to soothe and soften their lot in life, then the same arguments hold good for reducing or repealing it that apply to a great multitude of things not necessary to civilized life, but in such common use that deprivation of them would be counted a great hardship, such as tea and coffee, both of which are of comparatively recent introduction to the civilized world. Tea and coffee being articles of food, as well as of comfort and solace, are much better entitled to consideration in the arrangement of taxes than tobacco. Yet neither of them can be called necessaries, seeing that neither Alexander the

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Great nor Julius Cæsar, neither Demosthenes nor Cicero, ever tasted either of these articles, and yet reached very high standards.

Tea, coffee, and tobacco have been seized upon by governments as sources of revenue almost everywhere, not because they are the most appropriate subjects of taxation from the standpoint of justice, but because they are articles of universal use. Being such, they insure a very large income to the treasury, and this is very easily collected. The fact that the poor pay nearly as much of these taxes per capita as the rich is lost sight of, or purposely hidden, or, when brought forward as an accusation against the ruling authorities, is excused upon the ground that no other enforceable means can be devised for collecting the necessary amount. This country long ago discarded the taxes on tea and coffee. The repeal was unjustifiable only because it was adopted as a means of clearing the Treasury of surplus funds, in order to retain other taxes still more unjust and oppressive to the poorer classes, the proceeds of which go into the pockets of private persons and do not reach the Treasury at all. If this element of fraud could be left out of the reckoning, the repeal of the taxes on tea and coffee would be among the wisest financial measures ever adopted by any government, because it put an end to a disproportionate tax upon the poorer classes.

The question of repealing or reducing the tobacco tax comes before us with the same complications. We are not permitted to discuss it apart from the tariff taxes, which oppress the poor much more severely than the rich. The question which presents itself to a rational mind is, whether it is best to take off the tobacco tax rather than the clothing tax, the sugar tax, the salt tax, or the raw-material tax. Of course, the answer must be in favor of retaining the tobacco tax. But supposing that the protectionist superstition, or the protectionist ring, is too strong as yet to be broken, what view should be taken of the proposed repeal or reduction of the tax on tobacco? In our view it is not a thing for free-traders to wail over. The repeal bill does not come at its proper place in the procession. It ought to follow rather than precede the repeal of the taxes on blankets and thread and wood-screws and codfish, etc., but it ought to come some time because the tobacco tax is an unequal assessment upon the humbler classes, upon those least able to bear the burden. Grant that it is a voluntary burden, the bearing of it ought not to be required unless it can be shown that tobacco is upon the whole hurtful to the human system and to the social system. Meantime, it is admitted by most of those who have adequate means of knowledge, that tobacco is a great solace and sedative to the worker, whether he works with his mind or with his muscles, and is a kind of stimulant which does not call for an increasing dose in order to produce its customary effect. We now and then hear of a tobacco drunkard, but they are as rare as white blackbirds. None of them are wife-beaters, or give any occupation to the police.

SOME RECENT MEXICAN LEGISLATION.

THE first session of the Thirteenth Mexican Congress, brought to a close on December 15, besides the infinity of private bills, passed some measures of national and even international importance. First among these are the enactments looking to relief from the financial strain under which Mexico is laboring. One of these is the so-called amendment to article 124 of the Constitution, declared adopted on the 26th of November with due pomp and parade, and heralded as of great significance both for domestic and foreign commerce. The impression was given, that is, that the system of internal custom-houses and of onerous municipal taxes on produce, the *alcabala*, was to be entirely abolished. To effect this it would not seem that there was need of amending the Constitution of '57, inasmuch as the very article in question distinctly declares: "On December 1, 1858, the *alcabalas* and interior custom-houses shall be abolished throughout the entire Republic." Article 124 says exactly and solely this. But it remained a dead letter. So did the law of May 17, 1882, which enacted that "On December 1, 1884, at the latest, the *alcabalas* and interior custom-houses shall be abolished in the Federal District and in the Territory of Lower California, as well as in those States which have not already suppressed them."

The substance of the new amendment is that the States can no longer tax commodities in simple transit through their territory, that they can lay no export duty, that duties must be assigned without discrimination against localities, and that domestic traffic shall no longer be compelled to follow a fixed route or be subjected to inspection and entry. Here would certainly appear to be a gain for importers and shippers, provided the law is executed, but the advantage for domestic trade must be considered problematical. For example, the Governor of the State of Mexico has just issued a decree whose bare terms will best show how these matters of fiscal reform fare under Mexican methods: "Article 1. The collection of the *alcabala* is to cease throughout the State, and for it is to be substituted an impost called duty of consumption. Article 2. The duty of consumption shall take effect in the same cases and upon the same products as did the *alcabala*." This process would seem to be rightly called by *El Nieto del Ahuizote*, the comic illustrated paper of the capital, the proverbial one of changing the piston and leaving the syringe the same.

Far more significant is the action taken by Congress on the report and proposed bill of a committee appointed to bring in measures for the promotion of the interests of mining, of agriculture, and of manufactures. Nothing more radical has ever been heard in Mexico than the speech of Señor Bulnes, the able chairman of this committee. He cogently set forth the need of helping the industries of the country by freeing them from the vexatious governmental regulations and the frightful taxation to which they are now subject. In reference to the tariff he took ground which he admitted to be essentially that of free trade, but contented himself with urging for the present no more than the putting on the free list of several articles and the reduction of the duty on others. The first ten sections of the bill which he presented, and which, strange to say, after an animated discussion, was passed by a large majority, are occupied with provisions removing from miners and farmers some of the strangling taxes hitherto laid upon them. The eleventh section removes all import duty from a long list of articles, of which the most important are all the acids used in mining, barbed wire, live animals, ploughs and ploughshares, pitch and tar, crowbars, all sizes of wire, iron tubing, all classes of machinery used in mining or agriculture, powder and dynamite, common salt. The succeeding section reduces to a merely nominal sum the duty on several minor articles. This bill, as we have said, passed the House of Deputies with no appreciable opposition, though it was not, so far as we can learn, taken up by the Senate, and will, therefore, come up as unfinished business at the spring session. Completely in the face of Spanish traditions and of Mexican practice as it is, this enlightened measure must be supposed to have back of it the approval of the Administration, else it could never have been received as it was, and accordingly to be one of the certainties of coming legislation. It is highly suggestive of more sweeping changes to follow in the outrageous tariff which has so long marked the barbarous character of the fiscal policy of Mexico, and is reassuring evidence that the densest ignorance and prejudice cannot for ever withstand reason.

We regret to have to add to the encouraging features of recent Mexican legislation which we have cited, one step decidedly retrogressive. We refer to the repeal of the law of 1867 which forbade bull-fights within the Federal District. Those demoralizing exhibitions are to be restored to the capital, 15 per cent. of all receipts to be paid over to the Government and to be devoted to the fund for the drainage of the city. It cannot be denied that there is a sort of ghastly propriety in using a revenue derived from such a source for the purpose of disposing of the city's filth.

GERMAN VS. AMERICAN UNIVERSITY SALARIES.

DESPITE repeated correction, the orthodox view of German university life current in this country persistently maintains one eminent misconception. The generally accepted type of the German university professor is a man who has put behind him the world, the flesh (and the devil?), divested himself of carnal ambitions, and given over the search after the root of all evil—except in the purely theological sense. He is lean, shabby, and generally poverty-stricken, a self-sacrificing, self-abnegating truth-seeker. His salary is a pittance, a mere life-preserver; and starvation figures are quoted by book-writers and lecturers as appeals to the ludicrous, or by college trustees as an intimation to the pampered American professor that he ought to feel himself supremely blessed and particularly well-fed. It is certainly startling to hear that the famous theologian, Karl Hase, during fifty years (1830-1880) of brilliant service in the University of Jena, managed to subsist upon a salary that never exceeded $600 (800 thalers). Relying upon reports and estimates like this, American universities in quest of foreign rarities have assured themselves that their $3,000–$4,000 salaries would be most captivating bait. They have repeatedly let down the line, but no big fish bite.

The fact is, that for a German *professor ordinarius* or well-established *extraordinarius* with

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fair prospect of a successful career, the American university salary will offer no possible attraction; and the reason is not far to seek. It may lie partly, to be sure, in the natural disinclination to expatriation so notably characteristic of the German official as well as military and aristocratic class, especially in so far as expatriation is supposed to involve retirement from the arena of advanced investigation. This explanation is, however, unnecessary. The German professor is decidedly better off *financially* than the American; and we shall deceive ourselves if we think the German *Gelehrter* oblivious to financial considerations, or in any wise disinclined to estimate the value of his services in terms of the worldly mammon.

A comparison of American with German salaries cannot, of course, be effected by rudely turning one dollar into four marks, or even by levelling with the help of any such ratio in comparative cost of living as 3 : 2 or 2 : 1. The entire scale of living differs. The recognized standard of living is different. In America the mercantile class makes, more or less immediately and definitely, but ultimately, the standard for the official and professional class as well as for itself. In Germany the official (including the professorial) class is conscious of an independent existence, maintains a standard of its own, and lets the mercantile class go its own gait. This distinction is most evident in Berlin and Leipzig.

Entirely independent, however, of such considerations as these, the German salary will stand the test of a direct comparison of marks and dollars much better than has been generally believed. Salary must, however, be understood in the sense of income, and must, for purposes of comparison, include the various lecture fees, examination fees, both for the civil examinations (*Staatsexamina*) and doctor examinations, the allowance for rent (*Wohnungszulage*), and occasional immunity from various taxes, to say nothing of the various travelling *stipendia*, of the definite prospect of pension, and of the permanency of tenure. In the larger universities the lecture fees alone frequently exceed the amount of the salary. Assistant professors in Berlin have frequently declined calls to full professorships in smaller universities, preferring the fees in Berlin to the salary elsewhere. Prominent lecturers in the philosophical faculty at Leipzig receive $2,000 to $3,500 in lecture fees, medical and law professors much more. Windscheid, the "Pandektist," receives a yearly addition to his income of about $5,000 from this source alone. In Berlin figures run still higher.

The *Wohnungszulage* is a small or nominal allowance for rent which many universities prefer to keep distinct from the salary proper, in order to reduce the claims for pension, which are ultimately based upon the maximum amount of salary received during the years of active service. Allowance is also made for moving expenses in case of removal from one university to another.

Examination fees are very considerable. Most faculties have now adopted the practice of dividing the fees for each doctor-examination *per capita* among all the members of the faculty before which the examination is held. This amounts in the philosophical faculty of the average university to about $2 or $3 for each examination. Similar fees attach to positions on the *Prüfungscommission* for the civil examinations, positions held by the representative professors of each university department. A second and not inconsiderable advantage of such a position is the legal or moral necessity imposed upon the student and prospective candidate of subscribing for all the lecture courses of his future examiner.

The offices of honor, the prorectorships and the decanates of the various faculties pass in a sort of rotation through the list of professors, and involve considerable extra emolument; for instance, the prorector generally receives all the matriculation fees, or $3 to $5 for each new student.

A recent number of the *Kulturkämpfer* (September, 1886) offers an interesting article entitled "*Das neue Leipzig und seine Universität*," in which some figures are given relative to the incomes of Leipzig professors. The average salary —*i. e.*, the salary proper in distinction from the other sources of income—of the sixty-three regular professors is said to be 5,525 marks, or about $1,300. The average income may be safely set at more than double this sum. The average salary of the forty-eight assistant and honorary professors is reported as 2,400 marks. The entire income of the University amounts to 1,197,079 marks, of which the endowment yields 423,271 and the State appropriations 773,808 marks. The sum total of salaries paid to professors amounts to 463,315 marks.

In the smaller universities the minimum salary (proper) of a full professor is now about 700-800 thalers (2,100 - 2,400 marks). Increase of salary depends, as a rule, upon the demand for the services of a particular professor elsewhere. The comparative uniformity of American salaries within the same university flavors of communism, and has an effect upon individual impulse similar to that of trades-union wages. As a rule, the figures of a German salary may be said to roughly represent the number of calls the man has received. At Heidelberg, for example, several professors receive a higher salary than the *facile princeps* Bunsen; he long ago expressed his determination to spend his days where he is, and so withdrew himself from the market. His present salary is less than $2,000, to which must be added, however, in fees at least $3,500. The highest salary paid by the University is $2,700 to the philosopher Kuno Fischer, whose income from fees is also large. Heidelberg is poor, and some of its younger men are very poorly paid, but the smallest income of any full professor is about $1,500. If this seem small, it is to be remembered that the *average* professor's salary in America is scarcely more. Relatively few colleges pay over $2,000-$2,200. On the basis of the bare figures alone, the Germans are better off; the advantage of cheaper living and different social requirements is clear gain. The grievous side of the German university career is the period of probation; the *Privatdocent* butters his bread with hopes.

THE DAILY AND PERIODICAL PRESS IN ITALY.

LENDINARA, December 4, 1886.

I HAVE a faint suspicion that more than ten years since I sent an article with this same title to the *Nation*, dating from Rome; and if I am right in my surmise, comparisons may be found odious, as since that time the Italian press has certainly not ameliorated, and from many points of view has deteriorated. Compared with the Americans, the English, the French, and the Germans, Italians spend very little time in reading. Not long since I said to one of the largest publishing houses in Italy: "It is difficult to understand why, during the sixteen years that have elapsed since Cattaneo's death, the owner of his papers has never been able to find a publisher for his political writings." His answer was: "Find me readers and I will find a publisher." Such a response might be intelligible in England, where circulating libraries like Mudie's and his country branches exist, but in Italy such luxuries to poor readers are unknown. If you except Vieusseux's old standing library in Florence for ancient and modern books and daily and weekly newspapers, with a fair sprinkling of English and American fortnightlies and monthlies, you may say that Italy possesses no public reading-rooms. In the large city of Milan, for instance, unless you have a friend who can present you to some private club or *circolo*, you must subscribe or buy your dailies if you wish to read them. At Venice there is the Querini-Stampaglia foundation, at Rome the United Press Association opens its rooms to friends of members; but large cities such as Naples, Turin, Bologna, Pisa offer nothing to the general public. One would suppose, therefore, that good daily papers, a few weekly, and half-a-dozen monthlies might live on their purchasers and subscribers, but this is not the case. In the bad old days, when party spirit ran high, the party of order and the party of action issued racy newspapers. In Turin the *Opinione*, in Milan the *Perseveranza*—the former edited by Signor Dina, the second by Signor Bonghi—furnished good daily reading. So the several Mazzinian papers, the *Tribuna*, the *Italia del Popolo*, the *Italia e Popolo*, the *Unità Italiana*, the *Dovere*, the *Emancipatore*, variously edited by Quadrio, Campanella, De Boni, Mario, and other good ones gone. The *Diritto* held the middle line between these two extremes, published first in Turin and afterwards in Florence by the heads of the old Piedmontese Left, Lorenzo Valerio, Sineo, Brofferio, and reinforced by recruits from the party of action, who, after the campaign of 1860, in obedience to the plébiscite, took their seats as members of Parliament. Up to 1870, these clearly drawn party lines were kept distinct; but when, in 1870, Rome became the capital of Italy, nothing seemed left to fight for or to write about. Consequently, parties ceased to supply the sinews of war, and one after another the newspapers not maintained by Government funds died for want of breath. The party of action struggled bravely as long as Mazzini, Garibaldi, Maurizio Quadrio lived to inspire them. On the day of Mazzini's death, March 10, 1872, expired also the *Roma del Popolo*, a splendid weekly initiated by Mazzini himself, and to which he confided his last thoughts on religious, social, and political questions. The *Emancipatore* and the *Dovere*, posthumous echoes of the great master's words, died with the chief apostle, Maurizio Quadrio, in 1876. The *Lega della Democrazia*, intended by Garibaldi to become the organ of the various fractions of the democratic party, died with its editor, Alberto Mario, one year to the day and hour after Garibaldi's death. The *Fascio* and the *Democrazia*, which arose from its ashes, breathed scarcely six months apiece. At the present moment the old party of action has no vocal organ.

The party of order, whose members are wealthy and better trained, retain some of their old newspapers, but, alas! they are shadows of their former selves. Who now reads the *Perseveranza* of Milan or the *Opinione* of Rome, save the writers and their special friends? The *Diritto* one scarcely hears of and rarely sees quoted; the *Tempo* for Venice, the *Gazzetta di Torino* for Turin, the *Caffaro* for Genoa, the *Nazione* for Florence, and the *Pungolo* for Naples are mere local papers, though in favor of the last it must be said that it treats broadly and fairly all national and international questions, and Italian politics from a mild half-way-milestone point of view. The Government, or rather Signor Depretis, owns as organ the *Popolo Romano*. Of the editor and his paper the less said the better. The *Tribuna* is certainly the best Roman paper, and represents the politics—we had better say, the aspirations—of Cairoli, Nicotera, and other ex-right-honorables, left out in the cold. The *Riforma* is the mere personal organ of Signor Crispi, who, as proprietor and real editor, maintains it at his own expense. The daily *Rassegna* ceased to ex-

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ist in this last month of November; its proprietors and chief editors, Sydney Sonnino and fraternity, set on foot and for several years maintained the best weekly paper ever seen in Italy, the *Rassegna Settimanale*, in which social questions were impartially treated from a practical, scientific, and philosophical point of view. Now, more than ever, such a newspaper is a desideratum in Italy, since in every town or city a so-called social newspaper appears and disappears, leaving no useful trace behind it. I am not, as may seem, in a pessimist mood, nor at all inclined to judge newspapers from a party point of view; nay, I must confess my weakness for the genus and the various species. American and English papers I read with delight. But in Italy hunger and dearth are words all too meek: there is an absolute famine of literary or real political food. Taking daily papers as a whole, the *Secolo* of Milan, which has a circulation of 80,000 copies, has the merit of giving you the news of the day within the twenty-four hours; but the only daily paper worth reading is the old *Unità Cattolica* of Turin, still edited by Don Margotto, the most sceptical of mortals and the phœnix of journalists. A subscriber I am not nor have ever been—it would require more moral courage than I possess to have the organ of that thorough-going, constant champion of the temporal power of the papacy addressed to my humble dwelling daily; but when there is a chance of reading it round the corner, I confess to devouring it surreptitiously, and feeling satisfied after so doing. It gives you general news, reports the doings and sayings of friends and foes; some of its articles on non-religious questions are admirable, and for memory of dates, facts, episodes, and anecdotes, Don Margotto is unsurpassed; his only rival in the times gone by was Maurizio Quadrio, editor of the *Unità Italiana*.

This is not a satisfactory report, but, believe me, it is as conscientious as it is painful to the writer. If, passing from the daily to the periodical press, I could give a brighter picture, there would be due compensation, but this is not the case. From 1820 to 1860 I doubt whether any country in Europe possessed a more splendid periodical press than did Italy. Think of the old *Politecnico* under Carlo Cattaneo, issued between the years 1837 and 1849, then reissued in 1860, and continued until the death of that great philosopher and political economist. In that monthly review every question, great or small, was exhaustively treated—the theology and philosophy of Rosmini and Romagnosi and Ferrari, political economy from Adam Smith to Stuart Mill, agriculture from Arthur Young to Ricasoli and Ridolfi, the state of India and British treatment of Ireland (anent which country Cattaneo's prophecies are, alas, all too well fulfilled); the United States with her civil war; railroads, gas-lighting, popular armament, rotation of crops, the necessities of Italy of those days. Or take, if you prefer, a more conservative organ, the *Crepuscolo*, which saw the light, lived and died under the Austrian régime between 1849 and 1859. That was a weekly paper, a star of first magnitude, visible during the darkest night. Then, to come to more prosaic times, think of the *Vecchia Antologia*, under the bad old grand-dukes, and even the *Nuova Antologia* until a few years since, never equal to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, still keeping pace with it at a respectful distance. But now, if you except Ruggero Bonghi's uniformly excellent articles, a rare contribution from Pasquale Villari, and an annual sonnet or literary gem from Giosuè Carducci, the *Nuova Antologia* is but a shadow of its former self.

The number of journals subsidized by the Government and the sum paid it is impossible to state. That is a secret known only to the handler of the secret-service funds; but the fact, which is incontestable, does not diminish the discredit into which the press has gradually fallen. J. W. M.

A NEW VIEW OF LA BRUYÈRE.

PARIS, December 17, 1886.

M. ÉTIENNE ALLAIRE has just published two large octavo volumes on La Bruyère. It is not long since M. Servois undertook a study of our great moralist, which found a place in Hachette's magnificent collection of "Les grands écrivains de la France." M. Servois carefully collected all the original documents concerning the life of La Bruyère. M. Allaire has had peculiar opportunities. He was chosen in 1866 as preceptor of the young Duc de Guise, the second son of the Duc d'Aumale, and he remained a few years at Twickenham, where he had access to the archives of the House of Condé. He used the documents which he found there as well as in the rich library of the Duc d'Aumale, and compared them with other well-known documents—Dangeau's 'Journal,' the Memoirs of the Marquis de Sourches, those of Saint-Simon, etc.—and he finally made for himself a sort of theory of the 'Caractères,' which I must explain.

There were in the lifetime of La Bruyère eight successive editions of the 'Caractères.' Each new edition contained some new characters, portraits, maxims, spread somewhat in disorder among the old ones; each of these additions was the result of La Bruyère's mental experience during a certain period of time; and M. Allaire, if I understand his plan, has tried to explain these successive additions by the history of the time. He sees in them a sort of mirror of events, a mirror which gives at times a confused light, but which is nevertheless faithful. Surely, the mind of La Bruyère, living as he did in the atmosphere of the court, could not but receive strong and constant impressions; it remains, however, to discern how much in these various *strata* of thought, if the word may be allowed, which are found in his numerous editions is subjective and how much is objective—how much is the lesson of the time and how much must be looked upon as the mere individual caprice of a creative mind. This was a very delicate work to perform, one which required the insight of the moralist as much as the knowledge of the historian.

M. Guillaume Guizot has planned an edition of Montaigne, in which the additions of the second and of the third part are marked with some visible sign, so as to show the progress of Montaigne's ideas; and he has also undertaken to explain the development of the philosophy of Montaigne in connection with the history of his time. His work is not yet finished. M. Allaire's task was easier, since there are as many as eight original editions of La Bruyère: a mathematician would say that the law of a curve is easier to find when you know many points of it. The additions in La Bruyère become more and more numerous: "From the fourth edition to the eighth," says M. Allaire, "that is to say, from 1688 to 1694, there is no year during which the follies of his contemporaries do not furnish him elements for a new volume. The fourth, the fifth, the sixth, the seventh, the eighth, all have very important additions, wherein we see a reflex of the moral facts of which La Bruyère was an attentive witness, and of the historical facts of which he was an authoritative judge. He places under our eyes not only literary events of the highest interest, such as the quarrel of the ancients and of the moderns, the criticism of 'Tartuffe,' the triumph of 'Esther,' and the fall of 'Athalie'; but also political events of the highest gravity, such as the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, the diplomacy of the Prince of Orange, the English Revolution, the League of Augsburg. . . . In our eyes La Bruyère is no less remarkable as a historian than as a moralist."

M. Allaire has not quite followed the plan which I set forth; he does not follow La Bruyère from edition to edition. The thread of his study is not chiefly literary, it is chiefly historical; he tells in the most minute details the history of the times, and, when the moment comes for a criticism or a philosophical maxim, instead of making it himself, he introduces a sentence from La Bruyère. His work might be called the History of the Court of Louis XIV., with a perpetual commentary by La Bruyère. Such a method is open to criticism; it is very arbitrary, it is not often possible to see a distinct connection between the events and the reflections of La Bruyère, which have a character of great generality. It would be, I do not say easy, but possible, to write a history of Louis XIV. intermixed with constant citations from Pascal, or from any other great moralist. At the foot of each page you see notes giving references to such or such a chapter of the 'Caractères,' to such or such numbers of these chapters. I observe, for instance, on page 25 of the first volume of M. Allaire's work as many as eight such notes, which means that there are on the page as many as eight citations from La Bruyère; on page 41 I find also eight such notes; there is hardly a page where such a note is not found.

La Bruyère was the witness of very extraordinary events, and he lived with very extraordinary people; but his position did not allow him to make any clear allusions. We shall not repeat here the biographical details given by M. Servois about his first years and his youth; we will only follow him after he entered the family of Condé. He was attached, on Bossuet's recommendation, to the Duc de Bourbon, the grandson of the Grand Condé. M. le Prince, as the latter was called, wished to make a hero or at least a good soldier of this grandson. M. le Duc (such was the name given to Condé's son, the father of La Bruyére's pupil) was less ambitious: he merely wished to make of the Duc de Bourbon a perfect courtier: he was very anxious to marry him to Mlle. de Nantes, a daughter of Louis XIV. and of Mme. de Montespan, since a marriage with a *légitimée* would give the young Prince the *grandes entrées*—that is, free access to the King in his private apartment and at all hours. Gourville, who was the general intendant and factotum of the House of Condé (he left very curious memoirs), entered into these plans. So did Mme. de Maintenon, who was on the point of secretly marrying the King. The match was decided at Chantilly, between Louis XIV. and Condé, though the Duc de Bourbon was only fifteen years old. La Bruyère entered upon his functions on the 15th of August, 1684. The Great Condé had himself traced the programme of the education of the young Prince. M. Allaire enters into very interesting details on this subject, and describes minutely the entourage of the Duc de Bourbon and the life of the little court at Chantilly, and afterwards of the Hôtel de Condé in Paris. La Bruyère followed the Duc de Bourbon everywhere, trying to teach him history, to explain to him the Cartesian philosophy. Such subjects were somewhat too serious for the young Prince, and his preceptor soon found that the Duc de Bourbon, like his father, M. le Duc, would be very different from the Grand Condé.

The death of the last-named gives M. Allaire an occasion to speak of a well-known tradition, which was carefully concealed for a long time from those who did not belong to the great House of Condé. Tallemant des Réaux says distinctly: "The Marshal de Brézé married the sister of the Cardinal de Richelieu, then Bishop of Luçon. The woman was mad; she died in confinement."

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Nobody ever denied this fact. From this marriage came two children, one of whom, Claire Clémence de Maillé-Brézé, married the Great Condé (February 7, 1641). Condé had in vain striven against his father, who was anxious to secure the good will of the great Cardinal, and obliged his son to contract this marriage. Condé never ceased to protest that he had never given his consent to this union except under fear of the violence of the Cardinal and out of deference to the absolute wish of his father. The Princess of Condé was only thirteen years old when she was married, and still played with her dolls; she became in time a lively brunette. A child was born a little while after the battle of Rocroy; two others were born afterwards, but died young. Condé, however, neglected his wife. He was convinced that his marriage was a blot on his character; he could not reconcile himself to it. The Princess was much affected by his desertion, and she became a monomaniac. The secret was well kept and her mania remained unknown. M. Allaire cites, however, a report of an English political agent, taken from the State Paper Office (published in an 'Essay on the Life of the Great Condé,' by Lord Mahon, 1842), which tells of an incident that allowed Condé to shut up his wife with the consent of the King. "La Bruyère," says M. Allaire, "speaks of this affair as one of those curious cases which he does not understand: 'Is it on account of the secret or from an hypochondriac taste, that one woman loves a servant; another woman a monk, and Dorinne her doctor?' La Bruyère adds: 'For a woman of the world, a gardener is a gardener, a mason is a mason; for some women who live in great retirement, a gardener is a man, a mason is a man. Everything is temptation for those who fear temptation.'" I ask here, By what right does M. Allaire apply this passage to the case of the Princess of Condé? It is enough for him that such an application could be made, but was it really made by the author of the 'Characters'?

The Princess became incurable; she was kept in a park at Châteauroux in Berri, where she was treated with care, and was surrounded with devoted servants. Her son, Henri Jules de Bourbon, called M. le Duc, was never shut up, but he was very eccentric, very irrational; for a moment he excited great hopes in his father, but he was a failure. He never could learn the first elements of the art of war; he had no equilibrium, no balance; he was light, irrational, full of caprices; he was incoherent, dissipated. As long as Condé lived, he was kept within bounds; after his father's death M. le Duc became uncontrollable, and he had frequently terrible fits of anger, which, says Saint-Simon, resembled at the same time epilepsy and apoplexy. He died in one of these fits, at the age of forty-two, in full carnival, making horrible grimaces.

Condé had always had great fears of his son, seeing in him the temper of his mother, and it was for this reason that he took such great care of the education of his grandson, the Duc de Bourbon, and placed near him such men as La Bruyère. It was also to please his son, and to keep him contented, that he consented to the marriage of the Duc de Bourbon with Mlle. de Nantes, the daughter *légitimée* of Louis XIV. and of Mme. de Montespan, though he saw the vice of such an alliance; he hoped, also, to bring fresh blood into his family, and to counteract the influence of the blood of the Brézés. He showed great affection for the young Duchess, who was amiable, sensible, who led a regular life, and who protected her husband against the evil influences of the little court of the Dauphin.

After the death of Condé, La Bruyère remained attached to the Duke and Duchess of Bourbon, with the functions of gentleman in waiting. The leisure of his new life gave him time to finish his 'Characters.' He read his work to a few friends, and among them to Boileau, and, after some hesitation, took it to the printer. The book had immediately a great success, especially in the ranks of the high clergy. The pious Catholics understood at once the scheme of the work, which only shows what is false and ridiculous in the world in order to bring the mind of man into the higher atmosphere of truth. Bussy-Rabutin, who was a pure *mondain*, wrote, however, a charming letter on the book, praised it, and expressed a great desire to make the acquaintance of the author. M. le Prince (since the death of Condé M. le Duc had assumed this name) did not much admire the 'Caractères,' and simply approved of them. The success of the first three editions added a little lustre to the House of Condé. La Bruyère was one of his gentlemen; he was proud but unselfish, unambitious; perhaps the Prince could make some use of his talents and of his good will.

The success of his 'Caractères' was a great encouragement to La Bruyère; and it may be said that the fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh editions form altogether a new work, and the most important. In these editions La Bruyère touched boldly some of the most important questions, he passed in review all classes of society, he spoke of the people, he deplored war, he showed the advantages of good government, he prophesied revolution, he described the follies of the court and of the world, he entered into the highest philosophical problems, he gave the history of his own soul, his illusions in regard to life, love, glory. His work had come to its present state of perfection (the word perfection is not too strong) when he died on the 11th of May, 1696, at Versailles, at the moment when he was preparing a ninth edition, which had no additions, but only a few corrections.

Correspondence.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: To any one who has had experience, as a scribe of a local conference, in gathering the religious statistics from the individual churches, your recent article on "Religious Statistics" is calculated to provoke a smile. You object to the simple denials of your assertions by the *Independent*, and call for specific proofs, though it is hard to see why the denials of a paper familiar with religious matters are not all that is called for in reply to the assertions of a paper not familiar with them, till those assertions are supported by some specific proof. In my own denomination (Congregational), and I suppose in others, it is customary to apportion the amount to be raised for benevolences and the expenses of our denominational machinery among the churches in proportion to their membership; and the pressure which is felt by the churches is toward reporting the membership as small as possible. But this is a point on which minute investigation is necessary to reach any results which can be put into figures. When, however, you say, "The lists of membership given in denominational year-books are notoriously inflated, as are also the returns of church benevolences," you in the latter clause get into the range of figures ready to hand; and a slight examination of the last (or any other) Congregational Year-Book will show how wide of the truth your statement is, at least so far as the Congregational churches are concerned.

Thus, according to our last Year-Book (*cf.* p. 210 with pp. 43-53), the amount which the churches report as given the preceding year to foreign missions is $302,395.19, while our Board of Foreign Missions actually received in donations from the living $428,769.98. The donations to the American Missionary Association were $191,698 35, of which only $114,283.36 got into the church reports. The cash receipts of our Home Missionary Society and New West Education Commission were $500,237.81 besides over $50,000 in supplies; but the church reports include only $279,433.40. In this last case, but not in the others, legacies are included in the receipts; but legacies, as well as supplies not in cash, are often included in church reports, and may correctly be so included.

These figures certainly do not show that "the returns of church benevolences are inflated," and would seem sufficient till you have something besides assertions to offer on the other side. As sometimes the total is reported without specifying the separate causes, the column of "Total Benevolences" is more nearly complete; though this column (which includes all gifts to local and undenominational causes) is far below the facts.

Respectfully yours, E. W. Miller.

Big Rapids, Mich., December 25, 1886.

[The trouble with Mr. Miller seems to be the same as is the case with the *Independent*, not seeing that ignorance, however extensive, must always be of less value than knowledge even if limited. What he has to urge against the main contention of our article, he admits to be of little consequence. We do not know why the conference to which he refers did not follow the usual practice of going on the basis of the last reported membership of the churches. But the Congregationalists are especially weak in the matter of statistics, as we shall see. At any rate, we presume that Mr. Miller would assign no more weight to his exceptional experience, probably among missionary churches, than to the remarkable argument of the *Independent*—the only one it has thus far made use of—to the effect that there can be no inflation of the statistics of church membership, because the one denomination that investigated its rolls found that its figures had been decidedly inflated.

Our correspondent contents himself with combating an incidental and entirely subordinate remark of ours—a single clause, in fact, of the whole article. Now we make no boast of being "familiar with religious matters," but it would be a very slight familiarity which could not show that Mr. Miller's figures are misleading and worthless. Why did he not read, or, if he read, why did he not believe, the statements of the editors of the Congregational Year-Book appended to their summaries of church benevolences? They say (p. 211, Notes 3 and 4): "The amounts reported above for the specific objects of benevolence are such as are reported by the State organizations and are below facts. They are inserted as indicating proportions, *but are not worth adding up.* It will be seen that the reports are very imperfect. Many churches make no report." Mr. Miller seems to have thought that such confessedly untrustworthy figures were not only "worth adding up" (they are not added up in the Year-Book, it should be understood), but also worth basing a serious argument upon. We see but one possible excuse for him. If he meant to argue that the benevolent returns of Congregational churches are not inflated because there are no returns at all deserving the

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name, that his denomination is so loosely organized that it cannot secure the facts from the local churches, we are willing to admit that he has made his point, though he has most ingeniously concealed it; but we wonder that he went at it in such a roundabout way. In any other aspect of the case, we see nothing for it but to accuse him of presenting figures that are either ridiculous or intended to deceive. Furthermore, the Year Book itself makes it clear that gifts of $387,000, not $302,000, as he says, were credited to the churches, since p. 43 states that the former sum has been "acknowledged in the *Missionary Herald*."

Now, if Mr. Miller is really willing to rest the case upon an argument of the kind he advances as "sufficient," we commend to his attention the corresponding statistics of the Presbyterian Church, whose polity admits of a very near approach to accuracy in such matters. In the minutes of the General Assembly of this year, gifts by the churches to home missions are returned aggregating $760,947. But the financial report of the Home Mission Board shows that of this amount no more than $498,662 reached its treasury. We understand perfectly that a part of this discrepancy of $262,285 is to be accounted for on the score of "supplies" sent directly to needy ministers, but, to account for it all in this way, the gifts would have to be at the rate of $191 to each of the men commissioned by the Board, or rather at the rate of $400, inasmuch as not half of them are favored with "boxes"; and we leave it to Mr. Miller if any of the home missionaries of his acquaintance would not surrender his "supplies" for two or three years in lieu of such a sum in cash. The facts are similar in the case of Presbyterian foreign missions. The minutes report contributions of $651,160, while the Foreign Mission Board acknowledges but $538,638. In this case "supplies" cannot be invoked to any appreciable extent, to account for the deficiency of $112,522. Part of it, no doubt, goes to such non-Presbyterian missions as the McAll in France, or the Van Meter in Rome, which survives to prey upon the churches, even after its frequent exposures; a fraction, we suppose, finds its way to the pockets of irresponsible Armenians and Hindus who are for years "on the point of returning to preach the Gospel to their countrymen," and meanwhile pick up a comfortable living among American Christians; as to the rest, we confess we are as curious as the missionary secretaries to know what becomes of it.

These are some of the facts we had in mind at the time of penning the clause so much objected to. Another one like them is the practice of some city pastors who, when the time comes to make the yearly returns, gather together the reports of public charities—hospitals, asylums, orphanages, etc.—and put down, under the head of "miscellaneous benevolences" of their churches, all gifts which they find credited to any member of their churches or congregations. We suppose we ought to add, to prevent, if possible, the charge that we accuse ministers and churches of intentional dishonesty, a denial of intending any such thing. We simply maintain our former position, that the statistics of church benevolence, like those of church membership, need to be sifted before they can be used with such positiveness as that with which they are often cited. That is, Christian apologists who are working the statistical argument so hard nowadays, ought to be a little less dogmatic in proving that Christian faith is not waning from the fact that it "lays upon the altar" such and such sums in "hard cash." This would be true, even if the discrepancies pointed out above were to be fully explained.—Ed. Nation.]

HISTORY AND THE GROUP SYSTEM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The statement from Prof. Palmer's article which you quote in your issue of December 23, has left upon some minds a false impression with respect to the limitation of our undergraduate courses in English and American history to law students and students of modern languages. As a matter of fact, there is no obstacle in the group-system to any student electing three hours a week of French and English history for one year, and the same amount of English and American constitutional history. While absolving the requirements of a particular group of studies, say the classical, students are not only allowed, but are sometimes encouraged, to elect historical courses in addition. To say, therefore, that "One does not feel quite easy in allowing nobody but a lawyer or a devotee of modern languages to read a page of English or American history" is expressing a discontent which is hardly warranted by the elasticity of the group-system.

I may perhaps be allowed to add that all undergraduate applicants for admission to the university are first examined orally in American history; if successful, they are then admitted to the written examination for matriculation, which, in history, requires a text-book knowledge of either (1) England and the United States, or (2) Greece and Rome, as the candidate may elect. The history of England and of the United States is usually offered for matriculation, even by classical students. Every undergraduate is further required to elect a class course in either ancient history or general European history. Classical and historical students elect the former; scientific students, the latter. Upon such historical foundations, which, with other English studies, underlie the entire group-system, our own special group of historical and political studies is founded. Each of these two main subjects occupies two years, with five hours each week. Upon this general and special undergraduate work is based the graduate curriculum of three years in history and political science. Graduates from other colleges frequently elect undergraduate courses in our group, but our own undergraduates are not allowed to elect graduate work.

Very respectfully, Herbert B. Adams.

Johns Hopkins University, December 28, 1886.

DOMESTIC SERVICE FROM A WESTERN POINT OF VIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In response to the question asked in the *Nation* of the 23d inst., "Why do not intelligent and refined women more frequently choose house service as a support?" it might be answered, For the same reason that intelligent and refined men do not pursue the humbler callings in life. Capable and refined women can do better for themselves; more limitedly than men, it is true, but better every year and with more hope. A few years ago some six or seven employments only were open to women. There are now in the neighborhood of 100. In our own city one factory alone employed during the last season some 200 women, between the ages of fourteen and sixty. These earned from fifty cents to one dollar and a half per day, and in the evening passed out to their homes their own mistresses until the next morning. All these changing and widening influences must bring confusion to housekeepers, if for no other reason than that the demand exceeds the supply.

More than forty years ago, De Tocqueville noticed, in connection with our democratic institutions, the social inquietude and helplessness arising out of the domestic-service problem. He decided that in our country, where nothing is hereditary, not even money, it is impossible for a working class to exist. One whom you employ to-day may be your equal to-morrow. The men and women who for the time being work for you "rebel in their hearts against a subordination to which they have subjected themselves and from which they derive actual profit. In every household, secret and intestine warfare is going on between powers ever rivals and suspicious of one another." The forty years between then and now have but increased the difficulty. The colored people, in this section at least, and the native whites have almost entirely abandoned any kind of work which keeps them from home at night, and the whole business is given over to foreigners who, catching the spirit of unrest which governs all classes in the United States, yield but a temporary and a capricious service.

With regard to the conditions named, it would be well to ask if in factories, schools, and businesses generally the employees frame the rules. If not advisable in business, it is less so in domestic life, where each household is necessarily a law unto itself, and where the object is not to have some one whom you may kindly instruct or carefully advise, but to secure a faithful and a capable girl. Were school committees to provide for the welfare of the teachers rather than the pupils, hoping in this way to obtain more favorable and judicious teaching, it would be deemed the most farcical of means to secure the desired end. The rigor of the school law is such that teachers dare not do other than their duty. In Cincinnati, for instance, a few minutes' tardiness on the part of a teacher is mulcted as a quarter of a day's absence; but who ever heard of a deduction from wages appearing as a factor in the economy of a household for tardy meals, or absences, or comings home late?

Were social life better organized, it would be more powerful. Many rough issues which men prevent by combination, women are subjected to by isolation. In their case there is no majesty of the law to offend, but in every instance it is the personal, intimate relation of "you and me." If then, as a class, women were more dignified, if cases of disobedience were met with prompt dismissal, girls would discover their zeal and their interests united, and learn to prize the sense of honor more than they do now. Every lady would gladly give to a girl that sympathy and assistance which she extends to a friend, could she, in return, receive the same sympathy and assistance. The unfortunate point is, that in the transitional state in which we live, the girl uses her position for her own ends, and counts it no disgrace to be whirled from place to place, while the oftentimes dishonorable expedients to which ladies resort to secure help would cause a philanthropist interested in feminine advancement to shudder.

Life has many cares, but one of its heaviest to an educated woman is the necessarily constant intercourse with the "stranger within her gates," a relationship demanding continual forbearance, and returning, at its best, but a melancholy satisfaction. One may be "baptized into the sense of all conditions," but no state will prove securi-

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ty against a family of little children or their necessary wants. The training of little children and the active supervision of everything within her borders constitute at times, it would seem, a complex and an unequal share of life's duties for a woman. But with kind and efficient servants, she could retain in a measure her accomplishments, and find, through all discouragements, "some sparkles of a better hope which elder days would happily bring forth." But it is to be feared that until this new-world society outgrows its primitive conditions, and makes for itself a condition of things stable and conservative, or protects itself by coöperative schemes successfully carried out, it will remain in its present chaotic state, and burden the world with its jeremiads upon domestic service. E. B.

KEOKUK, IA., December 28, 1886.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication in your last issue relating to "Domestic Service" and signed "A. S.," gives one a fair idea of the circumstances under which the "refined, intelligent girl" would engage to do housework for a woman. To express it more plainly, this superior young person would consent to perform the duties which in modest households are assigned by the mistress to her daughters, and in consideration for this noble act of self-abnegation she demands—the use of a suite of rooms, board, and money in amount from two to four dollars per week.

Now it seems to me the great demand is, not for "intelligent, refined girls," who are barely willing under impossible conditions to enter domestic service, but for strong, honest girls, who are not ashamed to wash, iron, scrub, or cook. I repeat, the general demand is for servants; and as servants "imported" young women are superior to the Americans, and will continue to be preferred until our own countrywomen are in condition to replace them; and this will not be until the present supply of American workingwomen is furnished with an amount of common sense exceeding its degree of "refinement." Good "help" we must have, and if we cannot find it at home we must get a larger supply from abroad. These despised foreigners seem to appreciate their opportunity, and so, to express it vulgarly, will their "sisters and their cousins and their aunts."

Despite all this talk of abuse received by workingwomen at the hands of the mistress, it in fact amounts to little more than the complaints of some vain, silly domestics, who have perhaps been frustrated in a desire to "lord it" over an employer possibly ignorant in household affairs; chagrined because unnoticed by father or son; angered because the impropriety of entertaining *many* "followers" has been suggested. Each woman of this class is anxious to appear to the world as a "lady," and, because of her ignorant attraction for the word, seeks at all costs to assume the finery of a woman of wealth, and, in time, forgets even that originally her aim was to win for herself respect and esteem.

My circle of acquaintances is large, and I know not one woman who does not gladly allow her servants at least the following privileges: the use of a comfortable bed and decent room; appointed hours for meals; for entertaining friends, the use of a warm, well lighted kitchen, that can be made as attractive as desired; one afternoon and evening of each week for leaving home; any time as their own at home when the work has been properly done; the part of Sunday that can be conveniently given up to them; money, in acknowledgment for services, from two to five dollars per week.

The women who wish to monopolize all the light work, and leave all the hard work for some one else to perform, are not deserving of sympathy. E. H.

MICHIGAN, December 29, 1886.

BISHOP COXE'S HALF-KNOWLEDGE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: As your correspondent, "E. M. D.," has recalled attention to Bishop Coxe's singular manifesto in the October *Forum*, it seems worth while to point out more directly some of the errors of his article, illustrating the well-worn fact that eminence in one department of knowledge does not necessarily constitute authority in another. The "illogical and vulgar" use of the adverb between *to* and the infinitive, which he finds in Mr. Gladstone's speech, he has also noted in two or three other writers, even twice in *Temple Bar*, and, suggesting that Dickens may have introduced this locution into England from American "tap-rooms," asks: "Is there a reputable authority for this treatment of the verb before the days of Dickens?"

Now Dickens has been made to answer for many sins of his pen, but he should not be charged with this attempt to "debase his mother tongue." This treatment of the verb is as old as Wyclif, and is found in the works of such writers as Bishop Doane, Sir Thomas Browne, Dr. Johnson, Burke, Southey, Coleridge, Lamb, and De Quincey. These certainly are "reputable authorities," and (since the days of Dickens) Ruskin, Spencer, Browning, Matthew Arnold, and Leslie Stephen have thought the form reputable enough for their writings.

Bishop Coxe expresses great surprise at finding that "such a scholar as Liddon does not disdain to use" that "abominable barbarism" *reliable*. Has he never found it in the works of Cardinal Newman, Dean Mansel, J. S. Mill, Leslie Stephen, and Mr. Gladstone, who use it without scruple? Certainly he cannot have read Dr. Hall's volume, 'On -Able and Reliable,' which thoroughly vindicates the reputation of this word. He is also very severe upon the use of such "vulgarisms" as *talented*, *lengthy*, *being built*, etc., as evidence of the "rapid defilement and deterioration" of the language. It may shock him to know that the grammars in most extended use in the schools to-day have added a Progressive Passive Form to the regular conjugation to accommodate just such "improper" phrases as *is being built*.

But it is especially surprising that the Bishop, while appealing to his readers "to stand up for the purity of our noble language," should be very careless with his own purity. He cannot endure the established coinage *talented*, but gives us "Anglilоquent," coined "on my own theory." He abominates *reliable*, but uses "rationale" where he means simply *reason*. He says that Canning "confessed," on a certain memorable occasion, when, as a matter of fact, he only *acknowledged*. He objects to the "vulgar use" of the word *influential*, but, on the same page, uses the very illogical provincialism "in this connection"—a New England phrase which, says Bartlett, "has become quite shocking to nervous people." Many other infelicities might be noticed, since (to borrow the writer's own language) "I have thrown out these examples from a somewhat extensive collection of specimens." Enough has been said to show that the verbal habits of Bishop Coxe, though perhaps not as "vulgar" as Mr. Gladstone's, are certainly as "illogical," so far as illustrated in this article. However effective the intuitive method of propounding truth may be in the realm of morals and theology, it ought not to be rashly applied to the facts of linguistic usage. And as to matters of opinion and taste, one is inclined to believe that Bishop Coxe would have been less peremptory in his charges of vulgarity, had he fully perceived the wisdom of his own remark: "No individual has any right to engraft his personal peculiarities upon the common tongue."—Respectfully yours,

J. W. A.

BROOKLYN, December 29, 1886.

TOLSTOI'S "AUTOBIOGRAPHY."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your remarks on page 545 of this week's *Nation* on Tolstoi, permit me to say that the French titles 'Mémoires' and 'Souvenirs' were publishers' inventions, for purposes best known to themselves. I have before me the fifth edition of the complete works of Tolstoi, in Russian (excepting, of course, 'My Religion,' which circulates in Russia only secretly), printed in Moscow in twelve volumes, dated 1886. The whole of the first volume is taken up with *three distinct works, apparently independent of one another*. They are entitled as follows: (1) Childhood. A Story. Written in 1852. (2) Boyhood. A Story. Written in 1854. (3) Youth. A Story. Written in 1855-57. The Russian word is *povyest*, which is properly a *narrative*, as distinguished from *razskaz*, which might be translated A Tale; if, indeed, there really is any difference between the two. Whoever sees in these titles anything more than what they indicate—such as an autobiography of Tolstoi, for which this work erroneously passes—has indeed a valuable faculty, but it is scarcely one compatible with a clear perception of facts as they are. Many, perhaps very many, scenes have undoubtedly a *basis* in Tolstoi's own life; but this is far from making the work an autobiography. Would it be right to omit the title from 'David Copperfield,' and, without further qualification or explanation, print it as an autobiography of Dickens? Of late, especially, whenever Tolstoi has had anything to say about himself, he has not been in the habit of concealing himself behind fictitious names and titles of "stories." It must, further, be remembered that as an artist Tolstoi is the exact counterpart of Turgeneff; if the latter's art was eminently objective, the former's is eminently subjective. Hence Turgeneff's first great work was a series of sketches of things and men without him—the 'Memoirs of a Sportsman'; Tolstoi's first great work was a series of sketches of things principally within him—for the three stories form together a continued subjective analysis of the growth of a human soul on Russian soil.

As you see from the above, the proper dates for these sketches are not 1851, but 1852-57; nor can these years be called "the years immediately *following* the Crimean war." If my memory serves me well, the Crimean war began in 1853 and ended early in 1856. The work, moreover, bears no traces of being "abruptly dropped." The work ends with the first half of the hero's youth; the narrator was seized with a sudden moral impulse, and says, "How long that impulse lasted, what was its nature, and how much it contributed to my further moral development, I shall relate in the following happier half of my youth." This promise of more may have been made *bona fide*, or may have been designed as part of the "plot." Be that as it may, on the face of it this is by no means an "abrupt" ending.

These points may seem trivial. But when one constantly hears of details of Tolstoi's life which on closer inspection prove fictitious, it is interesting to trace them back to loose statements of faithful but untrained students of their favorite author.—Respectfully, IVAN PANIN.

WELLESLEY, MASS., December 30, 1886.

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THE INTER-STATE COMMERCE BILL.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your number for December 23 it seems to us that Mr. Ashley made several errors in his letter on the Inter-State Commerce Bill.

He tells us "that if the short-haul principle is adhered to, not a grain of Dakota wheat will reach the mechanics of New York." Now, on the contrary, granting that it cannot be carried quite as cheaply, perhaps, under this bill, we claim (and the facts and figures will bear us out in the statement) that, in case of the passage of the bill, Dakota wheat would reach Duluth by paying much less freight than it now does, and from there it would be carried to the "mechanics of New York" for less money than now. The wheat receipts at Duluth are almost as large as those at Chicago, and, for the week ending November 13, were 543,000 bushels, as opposed to 634,000 at Chicago. The passage of this bill would make Duluth the great depot for Dakota wheat, and right then would commence the only real competition—that between carrying by water and by railroads.

We cannot show more clearly the futility and uselessness of pooling and competition in the matter of reducing railroad rates than by quoting a part of an open letter from the "Mankato Jobbers' Union" to the Railroad Commissioners of this State:

"We claim that no point in southern Minnesota is by nature or geography tributary to any city north of a direct line to the foot of Lake Michigan except possibly it be to a point at the head of Lake Superior, and that any adjustment of traffic rates which would force us to pay such tribute is contrary to public interest, is based on unsound business principles, and is illegal and unjust discrimination; and furthermore we allege that the C., St. P., M. and O., the C. and N. W., and the C., M. and St. P. Railroad Companies and other roads are to-day, and have been in all their past, so adjusting their tariffs from lake points as to enforce this unjust discrimination.

"We allege that the C., M. and St. P. R. R. crossing the Mississippi at La Crescent carries its Chicago freight, of all classes, north to Minneapolis, 139 miles, for a lower rate than it will the same freight to Mound Prairie, 16 miles west, or to any point on its lines west of this last-named place. We allege that the C. and N. W. R. R. carries freight from the same point to Minneapolis, 420 miles, at a lower rate than it will carry the same freight to Utica, 319 miles, or to any other point on its western line."

Respectfully, J. A. Nowell.

Mankato, Minn., December 27, 1886.

CIVIL-SERVICE REFORM IN MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Friends of civil-service reform are scarce in these parts, and somewhat timid in making known their existence; but there is a time when patience ceases to be a virtue, and silence causes suspicion of imbecility. At present there seems to be a proper occasion to break that silence and give vent to one's dissatisfaction.

The subject of this complaint is the course of the Administration in regard to the Federal offices in this district, which has been such as to give the lie to its promises of reform and to the claims of its stanch friends, the Mugwumps. The latter looked upon President Cleveland's election as a triumph of sound political principles over the old spoils doctrine; they hoped to benefit their cause thereby, to be able to point to the practical application of their teachings, and thus to make converts. In this they have been most grievously disappointed, as will appear from a short statement of facts.

The district in which Detroit is situated has four principal Federal offices, viz.: the Pension Office, Post-office, Internal-Revenue Office, and the Custom-house—all of which were formerly held by Republicans. The latter have all been removed from office, and Democrats have been appointed in their places; and the reason for and manner of doing it have, in three cases out of the four, been in accordance with the old approved principles of the spoils system. The former Postmaster was an exemplary officer, as acknowledged by everybody, irrespective of party, excepting the Republican campaign managers, who were mad at him because he refused to employ the influence of his office in their interests. But off came his head, and an old Democratic warhorse, who knew nothing about the business of the office, received his place. The Mugwumps felt hurt, but did not complain.

The Collector of Internal Revenue was the type of an old-time politician, who used his office for two purposes only, one to draw a fat salary with great diligence, and the other to fight the battles of the grand old party. His attacks on Cleveland during the Presidential campaign were worthy of a denizen of Five Points, and he was most deservedly kicked out of his office. But the man who received his place was one of the most active wire-pullers in the Democratic ranks, and notorious for having used his position as Clerk of the Superior Court of this city for the purpose of transforming fresh immigrants into full-fledged Democratic citizens, to the detriment of the other business of the office; and his appointment could only be considered as a reward for most offensive partisanship. This, again, was a sad illustration of the application of reform.

There remained the Collector of Customs. He, too, had been an active and offensive partisan during the campaign of '84, and his removal from office on that score would have been justifiable. As special protégé of the Senator from this city he was not molested until recently, when his office was given to a Mr. Campau, a young man of large fortune and social prominence, one of those who might have been expected to entertain higher views of politics than the pot-house orators. The friends of reform were inclined to consider his appointment a good one, and offset it against the former bad ones; but alas! they were doomed to be disappointed again, as will appear from the following, taken from the Detroit *Free Press*, the Democratic and Administration organ of this city:

COLLECTOR CAMPAU'S PLANS.

He Will Fill the Sixty Positions Under Him with Competent Democratic Officials.

D. J. Campau last night received notification from Washington of the confirmation by the Senate of his appointment as Collector of the Port of Detroit. Mr. Campau said to a representative of the *Free Press*, who called upon him to learn what steps he would take towards the reconstruction of the force of deputies under him, that he felt exceedingly gratified that the confirmation was made so soon after the opening of the session, and wholly without effort on his part. Further, Mr. Campau said that as a Democrat he should consider it a duty, both to his party and the office, to supply every position under him with a good Democratic official, and that it would only be a question of time when such changes would be made. He now has on file just 600 applications, mostly from Detroit, each of which are from Democrats qualified to fill the positions sought for. The Collector has sixty appointments in his gift, and says that as he is responsible for the work done in the various departments, he would much rather have men of his own political complexion to deal with. The entire matter of selecting men as to their respective qualifications is left to him, the name of each being sent to the Secretary of the Treasury at Washington for approval. There is no reason to fear that Mr. Campau's administration will not be satisfactory to all Democrats.

One could possibly overlook one or even two mistakes in disposing of four important offices, but such a complete disregard of principles and promises in three cases out of four makes it imperative to call attention to them, in order to avert from Independents the suspicion of dense obtuseness or of blind and slavish admiration of their successful candidate. Undoubtedly the President has been misled by his advisers from this State, and we still are justified in attributing his errors to no bad intention. Mugwumps still believe in his honesty of purpose, but they may well begin to doubt his ability to carry out his intentions.—Yours respectfully, Wm. E. H.

Detroit, Mich., December 27, 1886.

SECRET SYMPATHY WITH CRIME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have a psychological question to propose. What is the exact state of mind, under analysis, of the small newspaper writer who always speaks of crime jocosely? Everybody must have observed it as one of the many ways in which the vulgar newspaper tends to vulgarize the public. For example, why "boodle" Aldermen? Certainly nothing is gained by slang terms for criminal offences; and it is noticeable that well-bred people are not in the habit of using them. The humorous or jocular view of any occurrence commonly implies a kind of careless, good-natured sympathy with the actor. What does this habit of jocose and slangy reference to criminals indicate in the third-rate newspaper writer, if not a secret and constitutional sympathy with crime? E. R. S.

THE EFFECT OF OIL ON STORMY WATERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: An account of Prof. Thurston's discussion of this subject in the *Nation*, November 25, 1886, page 437, ends, after mentioning Prof. Thurston's hope that the sea may thus lose many of its terrors, with the curious statement that "it would do much to undermine one of the chief arguments against thought-transference, namely, that it is impossible that it should be true, for it is impossible that if it were true it should not have been discovered before."

A belief in such an action is, however, of ancient date, and towards the end of last century special attention was attracted to the subject. There is a long memoir in the Transactions of the Brussels Academy (about 1780), in which the subject is treated both historically and experimentally. The author traces the history back through the Dutch and Norwegian whalers, if I remember rightly—I have not the volume at hand—to Pliny.

Among others, B. Franklin wrote "of the stilling of waves by means of oil" (Phil. Trans. Abr. xiii. p. 568, 1774). Thomas Windsor.

Manchester, England.

Notes.

The Century Co.'s war book, to be called 'Battles and Leaders of the Civil War,' will be published early in the spring, by subscription. In addition to all the war papers by Gens. Grant, McClellan, Pope, Buell, Beauregard, Longstreet, and other prominent leaders on both sides which have appeared in the *Century*, the book will contain many papers heretofore unprinted, and will form a continuous illustrated history of the civil war, written by the chief participants. The Century Co. will endeavor to make it one of the handsomest subscription books ever published.

Ginn & Co., Boston, have decided not to import the sheets of Minto's 'Manual of English Prose Literature,' but to manufacture it themselves and to publish it at a reduced price.

Cupples, Upham & Co. will publish at once 'The Creed of Andover Theological Seminary,' by Rev. D. T. Fiske, D.D.—a pamphlet which has been more than once printed.

Miss Kate Hillard, who has for some years been making a special study of Dante, and who is

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now residing in Rome, has in preparation a translation of the 'Convito.' The edition will include translations of the notes and comments of the best Italian editors, and of the dedicatory epistle to Can Grande, and also all the references found in the 'Convito' to the other writings of the author. Full consideration will also be given by the translator to the different theories concerning Beatrice. The work is expected to be in readiness in about a year's time.

The articles of Mr. David A. Wells on Mexico, noticed by us at the time of their appearance in the *Popular Science Monthly*, have been collected and published under the title, 'A Study of Mexico' (D. Appleton & Co.). The revision and expansion given to the original papers have increased their value, and they now present, we believe, the best information accessible in any single English book regarding the economic situation of Mexico. One of Mr. Wells's additions is misleading, however, where he speaks (p. 110) of the "only 12,361 votes" cast at the Presidential election of 1872. Aware, as it is evident that he is, of the system of indirect voting, he should have made it clearer that these 12,000 votes might have represented the suffrages of 1,200,000 citizens. To what he says of the problem of the drainage of the valley of Mexico (p. 202), he might have added some account of the plans adopted and the work actually accomplished by the Mexican Government. These plans involve the digging of a canal some thirty miles long, leading from the city to Lake Zumpango, whence a tunnel 30,000 feet in length is to be forced through the mountains, emptying into the cañon of Tequisquiac, in which a cut has to be made for a distance of over 8,000 feet. This cut is now reported to be entirely finished, together with about 2,500 feet of the tunnel. After such an unaccustomed burst of activity, the Government is now resting, and proposes to let the remainder of the work by contract, with the probability that the Bucyrus Construction Company of Ohio will be the successful bidder.

It is interesting to note how a wrong date once given in books of reference tends to reappear in other books long after the right date has been settled. Mr. George C. S. Southworth illustrates this in his recently published 'Six Lectures Introductory to the Study of English Literature,' where he gives the date of George Eliot's birth as 1820. Had he referred to Mr. Cross's 'George Eliot's Life' he would have found the right date, 1819. In stating, as he does on page 174 of his book, that "The wife of Prof. George Lillie Craik (who wrote the excellent 'History of English Literature') was long known as Miss Mulock," Mr. Southworth makes an original erroneous statement, which we hope will not be copied by other writers on English literature. The husband of the author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman' is a nephew of the late Prof. Craik.

The project of erecting a statue to Gustave Flaubert has given rise to many comments. Few men were more averse to the reproduction of their person in any way than the author of 'Madame Bovary.' Now that he is dead, his portrait may be seen in the complete edition of his works, but he would not have allowed it to appear there. He courted seclusion, and feared nothing more than the indiscretions of the press in regard to his personality. Fortunately for him, he died before the full bloom of the interviewer. The petty curiosity of the public annoyed him. He wrote to George Sand in 1871, "Has not modern criticism abandoned art for history? The intrinsic value of a book is nothing with the Sainte-Beuve-Taine school. . . . Hence in the minor papers the abuse of personalities, biographies, diatribes. Result: disrespect on the part of the public." And, later, he is exasperated by the gossip in regard to his home, "his slippers, his dog." He certainly was the last man to choose for exposure in a public square. Luckily the *intimes* will spare him this ignominy. They have agreed on a commemorative monument forming an allegorical group in which a medallion or bust of Flaubert will find its place. The monument will be erected at Rouen.

We remark the appearance of a summary of the course of lectures given at the University of Brussels in 1884-85, by Count Goblet d'Alviella, under the title, 'Introduction à l'histoire des religions' (New York: Christern). In the appendix is urged the necessity of introducing the history of religions in public instruction.

Les Lettres et les Arts for December (Paris: Boussod, Valadon et Cie.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons) contains a long article, "Le Château de Chantilly," by M. Maurice Tourneux, to which the number owed the honor of being presented to the French Academy at its session of December 7. M. Tourneux relates with much grace the history of Chantilly and its dependencies, especially during the long period of its transformation from a feudal fortress into one of the marvels of the Renaissance in France by the Constable de Montmorency and his descendants, and later by the Grand Condé into "un séjour unique au monde," where all the magnificences of the *siècle de Louis XIV.* were lavished. The history of Chantilly under the later Condés and its restoration by the Duc d'Aumale, still in progress, are sufficiently indicated, as well as the artistic wealth which will fill it when, by his gift, it passes into the possession of the five Academies which form the *Institut de France*. The paper is illustrated with photogravures of the present château, and by reproductions of old maps and engravings of the former buildings and dependencies. The brilliant success of 'L'Incendie des Folies-Plastiques,' the amusing volume of stories recently published by M. Abraham Dreyfus, promised more than is made good by the little comedy which he gives in the present number of the *Revue*. M. Anatole France is most happy, however, in his story of "Marguerite," which deserves the place of honor given it at the beginning of the number. There is a charming head of a little girl among the illustrations, and another picture of a boy still younger building castles of dominoes, which is delightful; but the pictures M. Anatole France himself leaves in the memories of his readers are far more delicate and exquisite in execution than any that the artists have drawn to accompany his story.

Among recent foreign scientific publications are the 'Chemistry of the Sun,' by J. N. Lockyer, F. R. S., containing a full statement of the hypothesis put before the Royal Society by the author some years ago, that the so-called elementary bodies are in reality compound, in which Mr. Lockyer attempts to show that the spectroscopic phenomena of both the observatory and the laboratory are simply and sufficiently explained on the view that the chemical elements behave after the manner of compound bodies; an elementary 'Treatise on the Differential Calculus,' by the Rev. Joseph Edwards, both these works being published by Macmillan; and a 'Treatise on Optics,' by R. S. Heath, Professor of Mathematics in the Mason Science College, Birmingham, published by the Cambridge Press.

The infrequent award of medals of the Royal Society to American scientists lends no little interest to the following paragraph in the recent anniversary address of Prof. Stokes, the President of the Society: "The Rumford Medal has been awarded to Prof. Samuel P. Langley for his researches on the spectrum by means of the bolometer. A better knowledge of the ultra-red region of the spectrum, which includes the larger part of the energy of solar radiation, had long been a desideratum when Prof. Langley commenced his work upon this subject. Finding the thermopile insufficiently sensitive for his purpose, he contrived the bolometer. This instrument depends upon the effect of temperature upon the electrical resistance of metals, a quantity susceptible of very accurate measurement; and, with its aid, Prof. Langley has been able to explore a part of the spectrum previously almost inaccessible to observation. A result of Prof. Langley's work, very important from the point of view of optical theory and of the ultimate constitution of matter, relates to the law of dispersion, or the dependence of refrangibility on wave-length. Cauchy's formula, which corresponds well with observation over most of the visible spectrum, is found to break down entirely when applied to the extreme ultra red. Prof. Langley has given much attention to the important question of the influence of the atmosphere on solar radiation. The expedition to Mount Whitney, successfully conducted by him in face of many difficulties, has given results of the utmost value, pointing to conclusions of great interest and novelty."

We learn from the *Academy* that the Council of the Senate at Cambridge has recommended the adoption of the University of New Zealand as an affiliated institution. In many respects this is in the nature of a new departure, for hitherto the privileges of affiliation have been limited to colleges in England which cannot themselves confer degrees. Besides, it has always been stipulated previously that Cambridge should be represented in the governing body of the affiliated institution, with a view to exercising some control over the examinations—a stipulation waived in the present case. It is also announced that Oxford and Cambridge have in preparation a joint scheme for the affiliation of the Indian universities.

—The January *Century* is a remarkably able number. The first place in interest continues to be held by the Life of Lincoln, which advances rapidly into the period of early manhood, occupied by his law apprenticeship, Whig campaigning, and marriage. The well-known incident of his attachment to a young lady who died is told without new details, and the rejection of his suit in a second instance is cleared up and the peculiar account he once gave of it in a private letter explained. His half-hearted courtship of the one who was to become his wife, and the singular depression of his spirits during the year previous to his marriage, make the most interesting subject of the whole paper, but the treatment of it is vague. If the biographers have been perfectly frank, it is plain that they do not entirely understand this curious episode, which remains an enigma. Their reserve in respect to the character of Mrs. Lincoln and the circumstances of the union of the two amounts almost to total silence. Second in importance is Mr. Atkinson's tabular and statistical view of the growth of our country, substantially the address delivered by him at Buffalo last August before the American Association for the Advancement of Science. It is full of solid information made easily intelligible, and is studded with those novel condensations of a multiplicity of facts in sentences of epigrammatic point which are characteristic of his writings. It is impossible to condense further what he says, but his tendency is towards showing that the distribution of our increased wealth is more equitable, and the share of labor in the general product is gaining to a greater degree than is commonly believed. He reckons the improvement to be such that the workman, maintaining the same standard of living as in 1860, could now lay up one-third of his wages. The facts and conclusions of this article have a wide reach, and are apparently to be set

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over against the economic state of Europe, in a future number, as the balance of democracy vs. dynasties *et al.* Other articles of note are Henry James's on "Coquelin," a very full sketch of Bancroft's life, the continuation of the admirable criticism on French sculptors, and Prof. Langley's popular account of comets, meteors, and shooting stars. Cable and Stockton furnish fiction.

—The fourth number of the publications of the American Economic Association is a very good example of what such publications should be. It is entitled 'Coöperation in a Western City,' and is the work of Mr. Albert Shaw, one of the editors of the Minneapolis *Tribune*, a writer who has already devoted attention to topics of this class. He treats of a variety of subjects, several of which are not of sufficient importance to justify our notice; but the accounts of coöperation among the coopers of Minneapolis, of the building societies of St. Paul, and of profit-sharing in the Pittsburgh mills, are exceptionally interesting and suggestive. The enormous production of flour at Minneapolis occasions a corresponding demand for barrels, several millions a year being required. Coopering, therefore, is a considerable industry, employing between 700 and 800 men, more than half of whom belong to the coöperative shops. These establishments are of several years' standing, and have been very successful. It seems, therefore, that coöperation in productive enterprise is in America no longer a theory, or even an experiment, but an accomplished fact. A whole trade has been revolutionized. Hundreds of men who were mere journeymen, liable to be discharged at any moment, are now capitalists, owning their own homes, owning stock in profitable companies, and subject only to the vicissitudes to which all men engaged in business on their own account are liable. The details of this remarkable economic change are told in a clear and spirited manner by Mr. Shaw, and this essay will repay whatever attention those who are interested in coöperation can give it. "The indigenous character of this coöperative movement; its remarkable exemption from the aid, patronage, or praise of social reformers, political economists, hobby-riders, or persons of the literary habit; its entire freedom from the self-consciousness and premature thirst for fame that characterize almost every social experiment, however insignificant," are all features of especial attractiveness. The stories of the Rochdale Pioneers and of the Godin *Familistère* have been repeated until they are wearisome. The story that Mr. Shaw has to tell has never been told before; it presents novel conditions, and for Americans is peculiarly instructive.

—The building associations of Minneapolis have not had a long career, and have to show so far about a thousand homes secured to working people. This number will probably be increased by 250 this year, and the ratio of increase is likely to be still greater in the future. But in the city of St. Paul the work of these associations has been simply astonishing. There are forty of them, and their monthly receipts are estimated at $80,000. They have collected altogether more than $10,000,000, and the general testimony is that by far the greater part of this money would have been wasted but for the inducement to saving which they have offered. It is calculated that one-fourth of the families in the city are represented in these societies, and more than a thousand loans a year are made by them, chiefly for the construction of dwellings. From eight to ten thousand homes in St. Paul have, either in whole or in part, been thus secured to their owners. Of this work, also, Mr. Shaw says that it has hardly before been so much as mentioned in print; and yet there is no doubt that "the building society is above all things to be commended as a conservator of the home and family institutions that underlie all our national greatness and power." It must be borne in mind, however, with reference to all these enterprises, that the community in which they originated has been exceptionally prosperous. Business, population, and land-values have increased together, with a rapidity sufficient to make almost any investment profitable.

—On the 15th and 16th of December M. Léon Say had the rare good fortune to distinguish himself within twenty-four hours in two very different fields, in the Senate and in the French Academy. His speech in the Senate, pressing the new Goblet Ministry to define its position, gratified the conservative Republicans whose opinions are expressed by the *Journal des Débats*, to which M. Say is a frequent contributor. The next day he read his *Discours de réception*, which, though aiming to be purely literary, was not calculated to conciliate his political enemies. He had to speak of two predecessors, a thing which occurs rarely. Edmond About, who had been elected to fill the place of Jules Sandeau, died before his official reception could take place, leaving to the new recipiendary the task of praising two Academicians. M. Say spoke of them both, simply and with no exaggeration of eulogium, with all the reticence of academic panegyric. After just one sentence about the "liaisons heureuses mais agitées" of the youth of Sandeau, he passed on to his first independent work, 'Madame de Sommerville,' not even mentioning his collaboration with George Sand in 'Rose et Blanche,' signed Jules Sand, although that was really the starting point of his literary career. As to About, his successor praised his *esprit*, of course, and he showed his own by the skill with which he managed to present this multifarious *petit Voltaire*, novelist, archæologist, critic, dramatist, pamphleteer, chronicler, and, in his own opinion, agronomist, even political economist. He was very courteous to him in this last capacity. M. Rousse answered M. Say in the name of the Academy. At the conclusion of his speech he alluded to the unoccupied seat (without mentioning the name) of the Duc d'Aumale, who, "upon leaving us, *nous a fait de si magnifiques adieux.*" The next reception but one (of Leconte de Lisle, namely, who succeeds Victor Hugo) will be that of M. Hervé, who, as Paris gossip says, was elected mainly through the influence of the exiled Academician. But the mildly Republican element in the Academy will surely express itself when their latest choice, M. Gréard, takes his seat.

—M. Émile Deschanel resumed on Wednesday, December 10, his brilliant course in French literature at the Collège de France. He began by a general summary of the lectures of the last five years, which were intended merely as an introduction to the Modern Literature of France, upon which he now enters. Five volumes have appeared, giving the substance of his lectures, and a sixth is announced. These are published under the general title, "Le Romantisme des classiques." The first four have been fully noticed in the *Nation*. The fifth is 'Le Théâtre de Voltaire' (Paris: Calmann Lévy; Boston: Schoenhof). Like its predecessors it is pleasant, rather chatty, never very deep, and will serve to recall to mind a series of plays now seldom read in spite of the occasional revivals they have at the Comédie-Française. Voltaire's tragedies (his comedies are not worth mentioning) have all the artificiality of the French classic drama, and they unfortunately make the reader think of a much greater writer. *Orosmane* and *Zaïre* shine with a pale reflected light by the side of *Othello* and *Desdemona*. The subject of M. Deschanel's lectures last winter was "Les Origines du Romantisme et du Réalisme," Jean Jacques Rousseau, Diderot, etc. This year he announces as his subject the history of the "École romantique," to be followed by that of the "École réaliste." The first authors he will study are Bernardin de Saint-Pierre, Mme. de Staël, Chateaubriand, and Senancour.

—To the student of classical history no subject ought to be more interesting than the survivals of old beliefs and old legends under more recent forms. And yet the investigation is not without its difficulties and its perils. As the horizon of folk-lore expands, we find so many startling coincidences in myth and legend and saga that we hesitate to pronounce on a pedigree which once seemed clear, and express ourselves with as much reserve as Telemachus did, when questioned as to the source of his being. Still, we cannot refuse to recognize the fact that the heathen nations that poured into the Church brought with them a stock of old beliefs, usages, ceremonies, which were incorporated into the new structure, lived with its life, and grew with its growth. Sometimes the new-comers seem to have influenced dogma, sometimes the "god in exile" seems to have cast his shadow, sometimes his mantle, on his successors; but doctrinal matters cannot be treated without apparent irreverence, and if we are to study the plastic adaptation of the figures of the Greek Pantheon, it is better to seek our examples among the legends of the saints than in the history of dogma. Indeed, we find that dogma had, at a comparatively early date, become so rigid as to allow little moulding from without, and the progress of doctrine is not a matter that concerns the classical student much. In other directions, however, a certain liberal policy was followed. Whatever could safely be tolerated was tolerated. There was no rude breaking with old traditions. The gods were banished, it is true, but wherever classical myths could be made to symbolize Christian life they were quietly kept up.

—The fair sinner with her penitential tears has been a favorite theme of the painters for centuries, and "maudlin," in our English vocabulary, is derived from the old pictures of the sorrowing Magdalen. The early Church had made the figure of the penitent conspicuous among her saints: no more absolute warrant for the forgiveness of sins than the woman that was a sinner in the house of Simon, that woman whom the Roman tradition identified with Mary Magdalene—than the woman who is still lingering in the outskirts of the Gospel according to St. John. No wonder that the sympathy felt with these Biblical characters expressed itself in the coinage of new types, and some years since Prof. Usener, in a charming monograph on the Legend of St. Pelagia, pursued that "archidiablesse" Venus, as Heine calls her, through all the Protean forms that she assumes in the chronicles of the saints. According to him, Pelagia and Marina, the Lady of the Sea, Margarito, the Lady of the Pearl, Porphyria, the Lady of the Purple, Anthusa, the Lady of Flowers, Euphrosyna, and Matrona are all reflexes of the one goddess, Aphrodite. To kill Aphrodite was impossible, but it was possible to disguise her and to convert her. What was pure in the figure of Venus found its incorporation elsewhere, and the soiled dove of Aphrodite, who is one with Semiramis, was washed in the laver of regeneration. Prof. Usener boldly maintained then that these various saints are only hypostatized surnames of Aphrodite, and in pursuance of the same theme he has recently given us the *Acta S. Marinæ* in a form for which those who sympathize with him, and those who do not, will be alike grateful. The use he has made of his learning may not be acceptable to most of those who delight in the legends of the saints. The use he has made of his MsS. is a matter of general satisfaction. The martyrology of St. Marina ap-

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pears together with that of St. Christopher—most picturesque of saints—in an appendix to the congratulatory letter sent by the University of Bonn to the University of Heidelberg at its recent semi-millennium. Much of Prof. Usener's admirable work appears in similar sporadic forms, and those who wonder at an erudition which is as familiar with the labors of the Bollandists as with the remotest recesses of classic mythology, are becoming impatient to see the complete cycle of which we have had only an arc here and an arc there. We can only add that the story of Marina is, to our thinking, much less interesting and dramatic than that of Pelagia, which is admirably told by the monkish chronicler.

ARTISTIC IMAGINATION.

Imagination in Landscape Painting. By Philip Gilbert Hamerton. Boston : Roberts Bros.

MR. HAMERTON again offers a contribution to the science of the most difficult, because least tangible, subject of study to which great importance can be attached at our present stage of intellectual development. We have reached at last a scientific basis for every branch of investigation into things subject of positive knowledge except art, which, while it goes on filling the earth with its results, gives us no demonstrable hold on its vital principle. *De gustibus non est disputandum* is the conclusion behind which all differences of opinion take shelter; and in fact the personal element so thoroughly dominates all others in criticism, that the standards of excellence and the position of the individual artist are more influenced by the judgment of a single critic of accepted authority than by all the essays of a scientific tendency ever written. We accept the judgments of Reynolds and of Da Vinci, not because we follow any reasoning they have left us, but because we know that they understood art, and therefore ought to be able to give an opinion. It is peculiarly a case of *possumus quia videmur posse*, and we have seen in this generation public opinion controlled, as far as the English language goes, by a critic who was demonstrably wrong (whether any other may be found demonstrably right, remains another question) in many principles of criticism which he laid down, partial and passionate in exegesis and inaccurate in observation, because he had acquainted himself with certain scientific facts, and with unsurpassed eloquence and profound self-conviction asserted those facts and that conviction to be the foundation of art, and therefore the standards by which it should be judged, though no thoroughly qualified artist has ever accepted his premises or his conclusions.

In the necessary work of clearing away the erroneous system of ideas which Ruskin, with an unflinching air of authority and contagious passion, has imposed on his peculiar public, no one has been so influential as Hamerton. Trained in a broad school of art, judicial and scientific in his temperament, he has attacked the questions involved in a true standard of criticism with a deliberation and breadth of judgment curiously in contrast with the Oxford Professor's, with the advantage that though he builds slowly and with a truly Caledonian prudence, his work stands destructive criticism better than that of any previous writer on art. Comparing this his latest study into the springs of artistic activity with that of Mr. Ruskin on the same subject, the qualities of the rival critics may be seen more clearly grouped, if more favorable to the latter, than in most of their parallel studies. Ruskin's essay on the Imagination is, taken with that on Beauty, the most valuable part of his 'Modern Painters'; but it will be noticed that at the basis of his entire theory of art there lies an element of mysticism, a remote metaphysical strain, largely derived from his personal emotions before nature. His theory had a fascinating theological value, perhaps a scientific one, if there were any method of measuring emotion by a scientific standard, but necessarily remains a mere suggestion for a complete and profound metaphysical investigation. Its analysis is ingenious and overwrought, and fails, perhaps more than from any other reason, through his attempt to include under his definition of Imagination faculties which are only associated with it or allied to it. Hamerton is more practical in his method of approaching the subject, and accepts the fact of imagination as we do that of thought, as a mental phenomenon of which metaphysical explanation is not to be profitably studied.

But in his turn Hamerton follows too far the lead of Ruskin, whose treatment he seems to have had in mind, and commits, in our opinion, another error in taking too little for understood in the minds of his readers. To take the last objection first, he becomes trite in his opening chapters, where he deals with the peculiarity, or want of peculiarity, rather, in the imagination of landscape painters—which seems to us to go without saying. He attempts to bring his argument down to the level of minds which, if they read him at all, will apprehend without this elementary discussion all that he bases on it; and if they do not, will take him at his word and accept it without the discussion. Nobody who is capable of following his investigation would maintain that landscape imagination is a separate faculty from figure imagination; and this minuteness gives the essay at the outset an air of commonplace, which weakens its general effect. Even here, however, there occur occasional observations which have a characteristic common-sense value, as when Mr. Hamerton says, speaking of unprofessional taste:

"There is good evidence, even, that a large proportion of the outside public is really more imaginative than some of the landscape painters themselves: for accurate, unimaginative landscape painting is never widely popular, and the lowest popular forms of the art, as well as the highest, invariably appeal far more to the spectator's imagination than to any supposed accuracy in his knowledge. The views of places painted on the panels of steamboats, or the colored prints that are bestowed gratuitously on the purchasers of certain groceries, or the sketches of landscape on screens and trays, are probably the lowest forms of the art that deserve to be taken into consideration; and in all these you will find, I do not say any noble imaginative powers, but certainly far more the impulse to be imaginative than to be accurate. This is only in accordance with what we know of the popular imagination in other things. We owe the development of all early myths and legends to the common people, while the criticism which distinguishes between legend and history is always the product of a small, cultivated class. There is, indeed, such vigor of imagination in the popular mind that the artist who is destitute of it cannot satisfy the instinctive need of the people. They will be unmoved by his art, and however careful, however full of conscientious observation it may be, they will feel it to be unsatisfactory, *and therefore reject it as untrue.*"

Rarely has a more important truth connected with the development of art been so plainly told in so few words. This passage contains the elements of a complete philosophy of art. The following chapter, on the two senses of the word Imagination, errs in both the senses we have pointed out, first in admitting to a certain extent Ruskin's divisions of the Imagination, and second in going to the lexicographers for the definition of a word of which no lexicographer can be competent to give a definition to the specialist. Webster and Littré can give the generally accepted definition of Imagination—that is their function; but when a finer distinction is to be drawn, it belongs to the imaginative man to give it, or, in default of his definition, we must recur to the specialist who deals with Imagination, *i. e.*, to art in its various forms. Mr. Hamerton would have arrived at a happier and quicker conclusion had he not deferred so much to the common understanding of what the common understanding will always make a mystery of. Nor had Wordsworth any clear conception of how Imagination could be defined—probably he had never given himself any serious thought on the matter—or what might be the radical distinction between it and Fancy. And Mr. Hamerton himself seems to us not so much insensible to, as timid in essuming to define, the true distinction between the two ; for that the distinction exists, not even Ruskin's avowal (too late) of incapacity to distinguish between Fancy, Imagination, and Invention (p. 4) is sufficient to make one doubt. If we might venture to supplement, rather than correct, Mr. Hamerton, we should say that Invention means the finding out a way to do a thing which may be imaginative or may not—it is a purely voluntary act, with a definite purpose in view, viz., the doing something by a method not applied to that act before ; it does not imply Imagination, but may be moved by it. Fancy consists rather in charging an object with some unusual attribute, or associating it with some unexpected quality than in bringing up new images; while Imagination is the supreme creative faculty, bringing up to the mental faculties distinct mental images, recognizable and under certain circumstances communicable to the minds of others than the imaginer. But as to the grade or quality of the Imagination, there does not seem to be any distinction possible except that of more or less, and more or less pure from Fancy, from memory of actual objects seen, or more or less distinct as compared with actual vision.

Not only is a recollection (distinctly recognizable as such) not a part of an imaginative picture, but it is probably a drawback to its perfection, for while memory acts distinctly, what it recalls will be actual objects seen, while the value of the imaginative picture consists in the unity which is the consequence of its spontaneous creation. Memory feeds Imagination, but has no specific part in the production of the "imago" beyond having furnished all the material which, digested and recombined, forms its details; and while the Imagination may doubtless be more copious and clear for being coupled with an excellent memory, it will probably be crippled by that memory acting perceptibly. Probably the best example of pictorial memory in the records of art is that of our F. E. Church, in whom Imagination is so completely dissociated from memory that it may be said not to exist, except in the sense in which all people have it in a degree, by having mental vision—if all have it. This, indeed, is fully recognized by Mr. Hamerton in what he says in the chapter on "Images in the Mind" (p. 7), which makes his distinctions in the discussion of Memory vs. Imagination less clear than they should be.

In connection with this subject it should be understood that memory, as the artificial product of science, and with regard to which Mr. Hamerton has, in the chapter on Training of Memory, some very thoughtful considerations, is decidedly antagonistic to artistic imagination, and not even, like simple memory, nutritive to it, for it induces the mind to retain facts as they are scientifically known, not as they are really seen; and what the artist has to deal with is the appearance of things, with regard to which Hamerton himself has taught us in his 'Landscape' that illusions are often the best side of art. If (p. 13) the distinction between *pinus sylvestris* and other trees is not visible to the merely art-educated eye, then art should take no cognizance of it, nor should a landscape painter take notice of geological distinctions which do not appear in

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form and tint. To represent rocks as gneiss or sandstone in a picture when they could only be distinguished as such by a geological education, is no part of art.

A most important part of this study is that contained in the chapter on "Images Evoked by Feeling," in which it is pointed out that a vital distinction exists between actual and dramatic passion, in that while the first paralyzes art, the second (or what Hamerton calls "secondary emotion," *i. e.*, a half-feigned or half-remembered emotion), develops it:

"This brings us to a most important conclusion, which enhances still more the great value of imagination in the fine arts. Not only are the images seen by the imaginative artist called up by emotion, but *the emotion itself is imaginative.* By the power of his imagination the artist enters into a state of emotion, and yet at the same time this emotion, which is only half real, leaves him sufficient mental liberty to attend to all the technical details of his work as versifier or painter. When a poet seems most deeply moved, he has still leisure enough to choose effective syllables and sonorous rhymes, as an actress, in the storm of simulated passion, assumes those attitudes which display her person to advantage."

A branch of his subject which we should have been glad if the author had elaborated more completely, is the relation between the imagining of a subject (landscape) and composition of the same; *unimaginative painters often having great* facility and felicity in composing, as, in a remarkable degree, our Church already alluded to. The chapter on "The Alteration in Images Produced by Feeling" seems to us to retraverse the ground occupied by imaginative conception, the true "feeling" or emotion being imaginative, and transforming the image derived from the natural scene to a different image. This is merely the case in which Imagination fuses the image without destroying its identity, so that it provides the soul or vital element without being concerned with the body or material element.

It is impossible in reasonable space to follow out in detail the development which Mr. Hamerton has given his subject, suggestive as it is of grave thought in every page; and if redundant in argument, it is without verbiage, and is full with the earnestness of a writer saturated with his subject and conscious of its gravity. There is here and there, however, a passage which does not seem to fit the frame, as when, in dealing with "The Alteration in Images Produced by Feeling," he says, "What is still more remarkable is that the history of past ages whose account seems closed with the death of all those who belonged to them, is constantly presented to us in *new aspects* by the *selecting imagination of new historians.*" This we believe to be a mistake, and that the "new aspects" belong not to the selecting imagination, but to materials brought to light by profounder research and the subsidence of partisan passions; Imagination having no part in historical research. The Imagination gains nothing by getting the credit of what does not belong to it.

The distinction of a "sympathetic imagination" we should regard as false in theory and confusing in study, for the quality known as sympathy (like Mr. Ruskin's "imagination contemplative," etc.), we should recognize as not a form of imagination at all, but a mental faculty which corresponds to imagination as the feminine intellect does to the masculine. We shall never attain a scientific nomenclature if we include under the same terms such diametrically opposed faculties as production and appreciation, creative and receptive; nor is the appellation of reverie as passive imagination more happy. In both these it seems to us that Mr. Hamerton has been unconsciously influenced by his reading of Ruskin to abandon the true logical consideration of the subject which is his more fitting temper. But apart from nomenclature, both these chapters are extremely valuable. The definition of Invention as "imagination that can be made to work," while open to the same objection as to nomenclature, involves some consequences which are important equally if the definition be true or not true, and therefore the definition seems superfluous if not incorrect. Invention and Imagination are not synonyms in any case, though Invention may be imaginative or the reverse. It may be objected that nomenclature is a matter of minor importance so long as a thing is clearly designated; but the establishment of any science, as such, begins with a just and exact nomenclature, without which no precise identifications or distinctions can be made. In Ruskin's theories of Beauty and Imagination the entire fabric is askew for the want of correct nomenclature, thus forbidding the logical application of the theories. Mr. Hamerton is much nearer the truth, but his formulas are capable of reduction to much simpler and therefore more correct and comprehensive terms.

We have left no space to speak of the illustrations, which add to the worth of this important book by their artistic value more than by their relevancy. The process prints in the text, reproductions of engravings, show how far the English are behind in this matter.

RECENT NOVELS.

A Step Aside. By Charlotte Dunning. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Katy of Catoctin; or, The Chain-Breakers. A National Romance. By George Alfred Townsend. D. Appleton & Co.

Roland Blake. By S. Weir Mitchell, M.D. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Silence of Dean Maitland: A Novel. By Maxwell Grey. D. Appleton & Co.

Necæra: A Tale of Ancient Rome. By John W. Graham. Macmillan & Co.

Francis: A Socialistic Romance. Being for the most part an Idyll of England and Summer By M. Dal Vero. Harper's Handy Series.

The Psychologist. By Putnam P. Bishop. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

A Bachelor's Blunder. By W. E. Norris. Henry Holt & Co.

The Marquis of Peñalta. By Don Armando Palacio-Valdés. From the Spanish by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

Agnes Surriage. By Edwin Lasseter Bynner. Boston: Ticknor & Co.

MISS DUNNING'S work shows a gain in steadiness, and a quickened sense of proportion, without which 'A Step Aside' would not seem an improvement upon her first novel; for in workmanship alone does this novel reach the level of 'Upon a Cast.' The characteristics of the two books are sufficiently identical to mark in them a common authorship. The same quick, nervous style, the same accurate perception of values, the same artistic handling which are here combined to make interesting the slight story of Pauline Valrey's brief lapse from the highest bent of her nature, made 'Upon a Cast' such a pleasant reading. One cannot help feeling, however, that the story of Pauline and her weak lover is a poor one—almost trivial in some respects, in spite of Miss Dunning's art and her skill in selecting and arranging. The characters are true and lifelike enough; the interest, which is a personal rather than a dramatic one, is evenly sustained. The surprises are brought about, it is true, by the most commonplace incidents, but they are not old or worn out, and there is now and then a touch of elevation in Pauline's character that will reach women especially. But, after all this is said, there still remains a feeling of dissatisfaction, as if something were lacking. Hugh Langmuir may have been a lovable fellow, and his passion for Pauline may have been very intense and sincere; but it is too much to ask us to forgive his weakness, or to look upon Pauline's final attitude towards him otherwise than as one partly of atonement—since she had been his temptation—and partly of self-sacrifice.

The period of the war is just now very productive of literature, and the newspaper humorists are not altogether to be blamed for having their fling at the tendency to needlessly swell the bulk of material which some future historian will have to overhaul. Fiction, of course, listens as closely as any other branch of literature to the popular cry. But the value of a novel as a repository for historical facts is always doubtful. An earnest historian would hesitate long before hampering himself with the needs and restrictions of a narrative wherein the necessity for adapting square facts to the rounded outlines of romance would be a constant temptation to distortion and inaccuracy. And while the sincere novelist may often find his advantage in history, the question of epochs in the world's progress will at last be found to be with him—as with Bulwer, or Thackeray, or Scott—a means rather than an end.

Mr. Townsend has possibly meant to do his work in this way. His first object, as he states in his preface, was writing a romance upon the conspiracy of Booth; his next, painting the more picturesque portions of Maryland, from the old tide-water counties to the German valleys and mountain battle-fields. But he has been overweighted with the burden of his facts. The romance is weak and straggling when he is painting picturesque Maryland, or broken and confused when he is developing the plot of Booth. Beginning on the eve of John Brown's raid, the thin thread of Lloyd Quantrell's story is spun out through almost endless scenes of martyrdom, battle, and conspiracy to final peace with innocent Katy of Catoctin. It is all done with the volubility of the journalist, to whom all facts, however slight, are precious, and the imagination a thing to be, at least generally, judiciously suppressed. Neither the immense amount of information nor the great labor of collocation shown by the book can be dismissed lightly; but as one reads and grows tired through the five hundred and more pages, one cannot help thinking how good the story might have been by itself, and how concise and valuable a history might have been made by leaving out the story altogether. Mr. Townsend says, not boastfully at all, that no natural scene is sketched that did not dwell upon his sight, and of one such scene he gives the date of the study in a foot-note. William Black is also said to make a study of his scenes while actually beholding them; and one is thus led—empirically, perhaps, but nevertheless irresistibly—to a comparison in which Mr. Townsend has nothing to gain.

In 'Roland Blake' the war plays an entirely different part. The scenes and incidents of camp-life and battle form a mere background for the action of the story; which, however, is in all respects so unworthy of praise that it is not a fair sample to set up beside 'Katy of Catoctin' for the sake of making noticeable the difference between methods. The whole plot of the story, in the first place, hinges upon an absurdity, for had Richard Darnell been a character with the intelligence and the feelings which the author has ascribed to him, he would never have allowed his true name to appear in the transaction by which he traitorously sold his knowledge to Union officers. Yet the climax turns upon the posses-

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sion of his name by Roland Blake—the only man who knew of his connection with the Union Bureau of Information. Mr. Mitchell's stories are readable; the memories of the war are very actual and living with him; but his conceptions are too hasty and too carelessly worked out to deserve more than a careless reading.

In considering just here 'The Silence of Dean Maitland,' it is curious to notice that while the scene, at least in its first two parts, is laid contemporaneously with both that of Mr. Townsend's novel and that of Mr. Mitchell's, there is absolutely no reference to the rebellion in its pages. One appreciates a little more keenly, even in dwelling on so little a thing, how small a part our great war really plays in the thoughts and interests of foreigners. But though this may strike one in reading Mr. Grey's novel, one will realize on the other hand that our men of letters have not been ignored—at least by Mr. Grey. Hawthorne's influence can be too closely and continuously traced throughout the long and depressing history of Dean Maitland's crime to prevent one from being constantly reminded of both 'The Marble Faun' and 'The Scarlet Letter.' The story is much more complicated than either of Hawthorne's; its scope is wider and more extended. There is nothing that recalls the close artistic treatment, the completeness and finish of Hawthorne's work; there is only here and there a flavor, a touch that is none the less real by being so hard to name. The old truth that remorse is the heaviest punishment for sin is the theme. And for the sake of a full-length picture possibly—and possibly for the sake of filling three volumes—Mr. Grey has described the life of Cyril Maitland as he passed from the innocence of youth through the stages of deceit, seduction, and murder, to allowing his dearest friend to suffer unjustly for twenty years in prison, while he himself, who should have been there, was steadily gaining the highest dignities of the Church; until finally remorse grew stronger than fear, and he confessed his crime from the pulpit. The book is liberally conceived; there is a generous largeness in its proportions, and a slow, thorough-going style in the method of their development, that is pleasant to meet with in this day of dashed-off stories and novelettes. But one would like the length of it better if the matter were more cheerful.

If reading a book without having to consult at the same time three or four others is, as Godwin says, an unalloyed pleasure, one can have no fault to find with Mr. Graham's tale of ancient Rome, but can pursue the fortunes of the beautiful Neæra and her brave Pretorian, and, satisfied with the purely human interest of their story, leave the annals on the shelf. Sejanus and Tiberius were only men after all, and one may learn all of them that is pertinent to Neæra's tale without going outside the cover of Mr. Graham's book.

The lack of earnestness, together with the light and careless tone of 'Francis,' deprives the book of any value or influence in the socialistic literature of the time. A socialistic romance cannot be "for the most part an idyll of England and summer." The misery and degradation that wrought Kingsley to such heights in 'Alton Locke' cannot be smiled away by pleasant love tales, nor hidden by a little innocent masquerading.

There is material enough in 'The Psychologist' for two or three good novels; but, as Mr. Bishop has put it together, it falls somewhat short of making one. By close attention one can find a continuous thread of interest; but it is so obscured by the jumbled mass of incidents, characters, and philosophic and religious discussions that to keep track of it is hardly worth the trouble. The commercial traveller as a leading figure in fiction will strike many as an innovation, but a religious drummer will strike more as an unusual type, and one that cannot by any means be descended from 'L'illustre Gaudissart' of Balzac.

There is less to distinguish Mr. W. E. Norris's latest effort in fiction from the general mass of well-written stories of English life than is usually the case with him. He seems to have borrowed some of "Ouida's" puppets for the nonce, and to have pruned away that writer's over-luxuriant upholstery, together with as much of the impropriety and suggestive innuendo as is compatible with the conditions of society in England at the present time. Nearly all the characters and incidents are of the most conventional type—the beautiful young girl, suddenly converted from a great prospective heiress into a penniless orphan, immediately after her first ball, where she not only meets the quiet man of unattractive exterior who is destined to marry her and win her love afterwards, but the handsome young officer who fancies himself in love with her, and makes trouble between husband and wife later on; the vain attempts to earn her own living; her acceptance of, and marriage to, the very desirable "catch" above mentioned; the uneventful country life, diversified only by the interminable visits of the young officer, who courts the heroine's sister-in-law, when not otherwise engaged in courting the heroine herself or the married woman who gives him good advice, tarnishes both their names, and urges him on to marriage with a wealthy woman who adores him, although she knows his ways; and the eventual reconciliation of all parties when the heroine has sent the young officer about his business and discovered that she loves her husband. The novelty in the plot is the manner in which this desirable end is brought about. Jacob Stiles, the instrument, is a character who would have repaid more extended study. He plays his peculiar part admirably, but the complexity of his situation and emotions hardly receives due attention in view of the importance of the results. The heroine is one of those perfect and thoroughly charming English girls of whom it is always a pleasure to read, especially when handled by a master of easy narrative and natural conversation like Mr. Norris. But his strength lies rather in depicting perverse characters, and his women of that class are certainly more interesting than his simply good ones. Carry Herbert in this volume is a mild illustration of this point. Mr. Norris shines with particular brilliancy in the difficult field of narration in the first person singular, and his best work is accomplished on that model. The present story is not so narrated, and therefore, clever and agreeable as it is, it lacks much of the sparkle and individuality which usually distinguish his work.

It was a pity to rechristen Don Armando Palacio-Valdés's delightful novel of Spanish provincial life 'The Marquis of Peñalta.' It places that unfortunate young man under the necessity of living up to the responsibilities of a hero, whereas Marta and Maria are deservedly accorded the preëminence by the author. A more really vital and comprehensible contrast of the two great themes of Spanish literature, love and religion, it would be hard to find. The romantic school still makes itself felt, to a great extent, in Spain, particularly in the treatment of feminine character. The distinctive merit of the novel now under consideration lies precisely in its departure from the conventional types, which possess but little power to move the reader. Marta has at length let us into the secret that Spanish girls are made of flesh and blood, much like the girls of other nations, instead of being very beautiful, very perfect, but very dim abstractions. If Maria impresses us somewhat less forcibly, it is because she voluntarily withdraws from the scene and deserts her lover for religion. The manner in which prominence is at first given to her gradual immersion in purely religious preoccupations, her increased severity towards herself, and her estrangement from the Marquis, followed by her absence from the story for many pages, her abrupt reappearance in the character of a Carlist plotter, and her retirement to the convent—all this is finely graduated and artistic, so that, although the reader is, at first, disappointed at not seeing more of her, he finally realizes that the effect produced upon his mind is precisely that which her conduct must have produced on her lover and her family. The touch of humor, at times approaching sarcasm, which lightens up the other portions of the story, is new but very welcome from a modern Spaniard. Marta's housewifely labors, wherein she is assisted by the Marquis, furnish not only a series of charming love scenes, but food for thought on the subject of Spanish manners and customs in the wealthy classes. The Marquis's way of examining the beds, and peeping into Maria's bureau drawers, in that famous hunt for the canary (during which the house grows from a one-story building to a thing of staircases, towers, and unlimited apartments, in spite of the fact that the head of the family sleeps in the library), is surprising, to say the least. Marta sweeping the dining-room in a ripped gown is as irresistible as she is when helping the Marquis to fold the sheets; but whether those sheets were rough-dried or starched and ironed, is a question which will harass the souls of housekeepers. Marta, too, would be called bold in some latitudes. But, in spite of these peculiarities, and an over-insistence now and then on points which are not proportionately developed later on, the life, truth, and spirit of the book must commend it to the novel-reader in quest of a fresh sensation. The translation is excellent, on the whole. Exception might be taken to a number of small mistranslations, but since they do not materially affect the sense of the book, they may be left for the author to quarrel with, if he should ever chance to meet with the volume.

There is a charm about Mr. Bynner's historical romance of colonial times which engages the reader's sympathies at the outset. The story is the familiar one of Sir Charles Henry Frankland's love for a beautiful girl whom he first saw busily scrubbing the stairs in the inn at Marblehead. He brought her to Boston, had her educated, made her his mistress, and finally married her ten years later in Lisbon, in performance of a vow that he would do so if he escaped from the great earthquake. It is a story which offers fine opportunities to a writer endowed with an abundance of imagination, and the chief exception which can be taken to Mr. Bynner's treatment of it is that his powers of invention were hardly equal, at all times, to the task imposed upon them of filling out certain portions of the tale where historical data were lacking. This is particularly noticeable in the passage which refers to the life of the pair in Hopkinton, and applies, more or less, to the remainder of the book. It is true that there was a long period of time to cover, and that the addition of incidents would have lengthened the story, but the lapse of time is hardly indicated, and there is a certain abruptness in the manner in which the scene is shifted. Up to the day of the elopement, however, there is no criticism to make, and Agnes is, throughout, an ideal character, with the one necessary limitation. But the author evidently does not feel quite sure of his ability to do justice to strong situations and passionate love-making, which surely ought to occupy a prominent place in such a plot, if anywhere. He cleverly avoids any dilemma of that sort on several occa-

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sions, and, in one notable instance, he distinctly shirks the responsibility, though the manner in which it is done almost disarms the reader. The evening on which Agnes definitely unites her fortunes with Sir Henry's is the occasion in question. Her change of feeling and the way in which it is effected are left entirely to the reader's imagination, while, for the scene which properly belongs there, an extremely good scene between close-fisted Widow Ruck and her equally close-fisted suitor is substituted, thus bringing to the front, at the most critical moment in the drama, two secondary personages, who have had next to nothing to do with the development of the plot up to that point, and who thereafter instantly vanish into oblivion. Agnes's sailor lover plays the part of a conventional puppet, with his opportune appearances. But if the author does not always rise to the situation, his book is good, and possesses in a rare degree that quality of atmosphere of the period which is so difficult of attainment, in addition to an agreeable style, which is suitably stately, but never heavy.

A BLOCKADE-RUNNER.

Sketches from My Life. By the late Admiral Hobart Pasha. London: Longmans & Co.; New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1886.

THE "late Admiral Hobart Pasha" was not in possession of an attractive reputation while he lived. A soldier of fortune never can be. It would be a difficult matter in casuistry to decide how far a soldier, even in the service of his own country, is justified in fighting in a war which he holds to be unjust. But there can be no difficulty about the case of one who hires himself out to be used as a piece of homicidal machinery by a foreign state. A man who, without the pressure of some overwhelming necessity, consents to do this, must plainly be altogether indifferent to the cause for which he may be called on to fight. The case presents itself in a very aggravated shape when, like Hobart Pasha, he renounces the service of a free country to enter that of a corrupt and barbarous Oriental despotism. But the human mind possesses an infinite capacity of self-deception, and the reader of these pleasantly written 'Sketches' will rise from them not without a considerable liking for their author.

Hobart Pasha, it is plain from these pages, was one of those men—not by any means uncommon in the "services" of all nations—whose ethics were permanently in a topsy-turvy condition. He spent sixteen years in the service of the Porte, and not only did he never regret for a moment the time thus spent, but he records, evidently with genuine conviction, that he has always been a lover of freedom, a champion of the weak against the strong. We are not, therefore, at all surprised when he inveighs against the "philanthropists" who carried on an agitation against the beneficent institution of slavery. The "philanthropist" is, in fact, in a general way, the root of nearly all the evil that affects humanity; and holding, as he seems to do, this view, it must be acknowledged that when he enlisted under the Constantinople Pashas, Hobart Pasha got into an atmosphere quite untainted with the malaria of philanthropy. The truth really is, that Hobart Pasha was a man born out of due time. His ruling passion was for a life of excitement and adventure. He would have made a conspicuous name for himself among the sailors of Great Britain, had it been his fortune to live during the great revolutionary wars. As it was, he flung himself with eagerness wherever hard knocks were going and danger of any kind was to be encountered, and he had a most cordial and sympathetic admiration for the brave man, to whatever race or country he belonged. It is, indeed, this hearty relish for manliness that constitutes the great attractiveness of these 'Sketches.' Southerner or Northerner, Russian, Greek, or Turk—let but the man show that he does not fear death, and he is secure of Hobart Pasha's applause. But in addition to this, the Admiral wields an effective pen. The sailor's trained habits of observation are here combined with a faculty of expression which seems to seize, by a sort of instinct, upon the right words to embody what he has seen. And he is never prolix. When he quits a subject, the reader feels inclined to quarrel with him for dropping it so soon.

The part of his book which Americans will read with the liveliest interest is his account of blockade-running during the war of secession. He took to this work because, on receiving his rank as post-captain, he found himself, as it were, shelved for four years, until his time came for a command. Blockade-running was just the thing to chime in with the instincts of a free lance. It was exciting, adventurous, and, if successful, highly gainful. "I trust," writes the Admiral, "that our American friends will not be too severe in their censures on those engaged in blockade-running; for (I say it with the greatest respect for and admiration of enterprise) had they been lookers-on instead of principals in the sad drama that was enacted, they would have been the very men to take the lead." The vessel that Capt. Hobart—or Roberts, as he called himself—had charge of, "was one of the finest double-screw steamers that had ever been built," and the following passage describes how she was prepared for her work:

"This was done by reducing her spars to a light pair of lower masts, without any yards across them; the only break in this sharp outline being a small crow's nest on the foremast, to be used as a look-out place. The hull, which showed about eight feet above water, was painted a dull gray color, to render her as nearly as possible invisible in the night. The boats were lowered square with the gunnels. Coal was taken on board of a smokeless nature (anthracite); the funnel, being what is called 'telescope,' lowered close down to the deck. In order that no noise might be made, steam was blown off under water. . . . While speaking of the precautions used, I may mention that among the fowls taken on board as provisions no cocks were allowed, for fear of their proclaiming the whereabouts of the blockade-runner. This may seem ridiculous, but it was very necessary."

Notwithstanding all his precautions, Capt. "Roberts" very narrowly escaped capture on his first venture. The run was from Bermuda to Wilmington, a distance of 270 miles, with Federal cruisers scattered about in all directions. Twenty-four hours after leaving port they were sighted and chased by a large Federal cruiser, which, however, they succeeded in outsailing:

"Night came on, and I had hoped that we should have made rapid progress till day-break unmolested. All was quiet until about one o'clock in the morning, when, suddenly, to our dismay, we found a steamer close alongside of us. How she had got there without our knowledge is a mystery to me even now. However, there she was, and we had hardly seen her before a stentorian voice howled out, 'Heave to in that steamer, or I'll sink you!' It seemed as if all was over, but I determined to try a ruse before giving the little craft up. So I answered, 'Ay, ay, sir, we are stopped.' The cruiser was about eighty yards from us. We heard orders given to man and arm the quarter-boats, we saw the boats lowered into the water, we saw them coming, we heard the crews laughing and cheering at the prospect of their prize. The bowmen had just touched the sides of our vessel with their boat-hooks, when I whispered down the tube into the engine-room, 'Full speed ahead!' and away we shot into the darkness. I don't know what happened; whether the captain of the man-of-war thought that his boats had taken possession, and thus did not try to stop us, or whether he stopped to pick up his boats in the rather nasty sea that was running—some one who reads this may know. All I can say is, that not a shot was fired, and that in less than a minute the pitch darkness hid the cruiser from our view. This was a great piece of luck."

The Captain had another narrow escape when making the return voyage from Wilmington, heavily laden with cotton:

"Daylight broke with thick, hazy weather, nothing being in sight. We went on all night till half past eight o'clock, when the weather cleared up, and there was a large paddle-wheel cruiser (that we must have passed very near to in the thick weather) about six miles astern of us. The moment she saw us she gave chase. After running for a quarter of an hour it was evident that with our heavy cargo on board the cruiser had the legs of us, and as there was a long day before us for the chase, things looked badly. We moved some cotton aft to immerse our screws well; but still the cruiser was steadily decreasing her distance from us, when an incident of a very curious nature favored us for a time. It is mentioned in the book of sailing directions, that the course of the Gulf Stream (in the vicinity of which we were) is in calm weather and smooth water plainly marked out by a ripple on the inner and outer edges. We clearly saw, about a mile ahead of us, a remarkable ripple, which we, rightly as it turned out, conjectured was that referred to in the book. As soon as we had crossed it we steered the usual course of the current of the Gulf Stream, that here ran from two to three miles an hour. Seeing us alter our course, the cruiser did the same; but she had not crossed the ripple on the edge of the stream, and the course she was now steering tended to keep her for some time from doing so. The result soon made it evident that the observations in the book were correct; for until she too crossed the ripple into the stream, we dropped her rapidly astern, whereby we increased our distance to at least seven miles. It was now noon, from which time the enemy again began to close upon us, and at five o'clock was not more than three miles distant. At six o'clock she opened a harmless fire with the Parrot gun in her bow, the shot falling far short of us. The sun set at a quarter to seven, by which time she had got so near that she managed to send two or three shots over us, and was steadily coming up.

"Luckily, as night came on, the weather became very cloudy, and we were on the dark side of the moon, now setting in the west, which, occasionally breaking through the clouds astern of the cruiser, showed us all her movements, while we must have been very difficult to make out, though certainly not more than a mile off. All this time she kept firing away, thinking, I suppose, that she would frighten us into stopping. If we had gone straight on, we should doubtless have been caught; so we altered our course two points to the eastward. After steaming a short distance we stopped quite still, blowing off steam under water, not a spark or the slightest smoke showing from the funnel; and we had the indescribable satisfaction of seeing our enemy steam past us, still firing ahead at some imaginary vessel. This had been a most exciting chase and a very narrow escape; night only saved us from a New York prison."

At the close of the war the blockading vessels turned the tables on the blockade-runners:

"Fort Fisher was at last taken *unbeknownst*, as the sailors say, to the blockade-runners at Nassau or Bermuda, at which places the blindest confidence was still felt in everything connected with the fortunes of the South, and where to whisper an opinion that any misbap might happen to Wilmington was positively dangerous. The crafty Northerners placed the lights for going over the bar as usual. The blockade-runners came cautiously on, and, congratulating themselves on seeing no cruisers, ran gayly into port. The usual feastings and rejoicings were about to commence when a boat full of armed men came alongside, and astonished them by telling them that they were in the lion's mouth. This happened to four or five vessels before the news had reached the islands. It was hard lines, no doubt, but quite fair play. It was the blockaders' turn to laugh now."

These lively accounts of blockade-running—of which our quotations are no more than a sample—are interspersed with as lively descriptions of Charleston and Richmond under the abnormal conditions created by the war. And there are, besides, other chapters devoted to a chronicle of the writer's adventures when engaged in the suppression of the slave traffic, to his experiences in the Baltic with the British fleet under the command of Sir Charles Napier, to sport in Turkey, society in Constantinople, and the performances of the Turkish fleet, which was under his per-

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sonal command, during the last Russo-Turkish war. Nowhere does the interest of the narrative flag; and the facts and anecdotes recorded are so many side-lights thrown on the main current of great historical events, rendering these at once more intelligible and a great deal more interesting.

Eminent Authors of the Nineteenth Century. Literary Portraits by Dr. Georg Brandes. Translated from the original by Rasmus B. Anderson, U. S. Minister to Denmark, etc. T. Y. Crowell & Co. 1886.

THE volume here offered to the American public is a translation of the collection of essays published in 1882 under the name of 'Moderne Geister.' To the eight essays contained in the German book Mr. Anderson has, however, added one upon Henrik Ibsen, which was written by Brandes in 1883. This last portrait is eminently worthy of the splendid gallery in which it appears. The German volume 'Moderne Geister' was noticed in the *Nation* of July 6, 1882, in a review which began with a brief sketch of the author's career, and closed with these words: "The works of Brandes eminently deserve to be translated into English, and when they are we predict for them an Anglo-American popularity second only to that which they enjoy in Germany, which is saying much." It is unnecessary to repeat here what was said then in praise of these delightful essays. They represent their author's best work, and Brandes at his best is the peer of any living critic. A few words concerning him in addition to what was said before may perhaps be appropriate.

Brandes is emphatically a son of the present age. Years ago he chose the modern spirit as his special field; his great work deals with the "main currents of the literature of the nineteenth century," and it is among these currents, as forming the great stream of the intellectual life of to-day, that he finds his true element. He is a man of cosmopolitan temper, of wide knowledge in half-a-dozen modern literatures, and of a singularly alert and penetrating mind. His style, which, years ago, showed signs of a tendency towards the dangerous brilliancy of his friend Taine, has of late become more chaste and classical, and may now with much truth be said to combine French lucidity with German carefulness. In tone these later essays are eminently calm; they show little trace of the ancient *fureur de guerrier* with which the author long ago entered the arena of Danish literature. Now he seldom takes sides at all, and when he does it is with the composure of a magistrate who does not feel himself called upon to amplify or to defend his decision. In other words, the critical art has come to be for Brandes essentially the art of depicting, and it is with good reason that he employs the word "portraits" in the sub-title of the volume before us. For portraits these productions are, and not essays as Macaulay, for example, understood the word. The merits of Brandes's work are those of portraiture. On this point some words of his own are interesting:

"For the critic too," he observes (that is, for the critic as well as the painter), "the individual is an especially alluring object; to him, too, the execution of a portrait is a singularly fascinating occupation. . . . After we have gradually become familiar with an author, have come to feel ourselves perfectly at home in his writings, to perceive dimly that certain of their characteristics dominate others, and then [*sic*, in Anderson's translation; read: if then we] happen to be by nature of a critical turn of mind, we can find no peace until we have rendered ourselves an account of our impressions, and made clear the indistinct image of the character of another ego that has arisen within our soul."

But we should do injustice to this great critic if we conveyed the impression that he is merely a portrait-painter in the sense most naturally associated with that word. Much of his art consists, it is true, in the skilful choice of interesting matters to talk about, in the carefully managed, but always apparently unstudied sequence of his topics, and in the nicety of his analysis. And these excellences at least have their analogies in the art of portraiture. But Brandes is at any rate no seeker after the picturesque and the striking; the truth is sacred to him before all things. Also, he offers enough to think about. At times he even becomes profound, and evinces the fact that he knows his Hegel as well as another man. But he never remains long in the deeps of metaphysic, and when he emerges it is usually with a pearl worth diving for. Take this illustration. He has been dissecting psychologically the genius of Hans Christian Andersen, and is busy with the fact that the great story-teller appeals most powerfully to children in whom the sense of sex is not yet developed. "The whole secret," he concludes, "lies in the fact that he is exclusively what he is—not a man of learning, not a thinker, not a standard-bearer, not a champion, as many of our great writers have been, but simply a poet. *A poet is a man who is at the same time a woman.*"

The following will illustrate our author's skill in comparisons:

"The criticism that can with justice be made upon his [H. C. Andersen's] 'Story of My Life,' is not so much that the author is throughout occupied with his own private affairs (that is quite natural in such a work); it is that his personality is scarcely ever occupied with anything greater than itself, is never absorbed in an idea, is never entirely free from the ego. The revolution of 1848 in this book affects us as though we heard some one sneeze."

A word or two now with regard to the translation. Mr. Anderson's general fitness for the task he has undertaken cannot be doubted, and does not need to be advertised. Although not to the manner born in the use of English, he has acquired, through long residence in this country and through much experience in authorship and translating, a good command of our idiom. His translation of Brandes reads in the main well. At times his work is even brilliantly done. All the verse quotations of the original are done into metrical English, and these versions are uniformly good as such things run. All this being so, we were somewhat surprised to find upon close examination that the translator trips now and then in ways that are unaccountable. We do not refer to trifling slips which the reader can mend for himself; such, for instance, as the one noticed above, or the use of "will" for "shall," or a failure now and then to find the very best English word. Nor do we refer to occasional unsuccessful struggles with the intricacies of German syntax, like the one on page 12, where the greater part of the page is taken up with a single sentence the meaning of which is absolutely past finding out, unless one turns to the original. What we call unaccountable trips are such as the following, all of them from the essay upon Heyse: Page 3: "At home in south Germany, he yet feels constantly drawn to Italy as the land where the human plant has attained a more beautiful and luxuriant growth than elsewhere, one that is less disturbed by *reflex action*, and where the voice of the blood speaks most distinctly, most powerfully." The original has "Reflexion," which means 'ratiocination.' Page 6: "[The enjoyment of life in his youth] was lost to Franz through his premature struggle for *self-consciousness*." The original has "Selbstgewissheit," *i. e.*, 'self-assurance.' Again, page 6: "He [Heyse] here portrays the sleeplessness of the mind which is as dangerous for the health of the soul as actual sleeplessness is for the welfare of the body, and shows how *one in whom the reflex faculty is maimed* loses that mysterious," etc. The original has "Reflexionskranke," which means 'one who thinks too much.' Page 8: "The peculiar kind of epicurean philosophy expressed in them . . . is in fact the poet's *conclusive* conception of life." The German has "schliessliche," *i. e.*, 'ultimate.' Page 10: "How powerless is all *comprehension* of minds." The German has "Einverständniss der Geister," *i. e.*, 'concord of minds.' Page 11: "blissful madness" is made to translate "seliger Unsinn." Page 17: "In order to be convinced of the *thrilling* significance of this characteristic." The German runs: "von der durchgreifenden [not *ergreifenden*] Bedeutung," *i. e.*, 'the essential significance.' Page 31: "Where in one of his 'novellen' he introduces himself as a youth, he sings in Eichendorf's [read: Eichendorff's] own key, and we recognize [read: we learn] that very early in life he has been in the habit of whistling with rare skill the melodies *of romance*." Page 33: "He did not long continue to carol forth the music *of romance*"; and further on: "He is too thoroughly a child of the sun to be able to linger in the twilight *of romance*." The italicised phrase is each time a translation of *romantisch*, *i. e.*, 'romantic,' in the sense of 'pertaining to' or 'characteristic of the Romantic school.' This misunderstanding reaches its climax in the following sentence on page 33: "A lyric poet he is not, in the main, and the strength *of romance*, conformably to its nature and of necessity, *lies* in lyric poetry." This last is a proposition which would puzzle a very wise man, but what Brandes says is entirely clear and eminently true, and that is, that "the strength of Romanticism lay in lyric poetry"—"die Romantik hatte naturgemäss und nothwendig ihre Kraft in der Lyrik."

Registers of the Births, Marriages, and Deaths of the "Église Françoise à la Nouvelle York," from 1688 to 1804, edited by the Rev. Alfred V. Wittmeyer. New York. 1886. [Collections of the Huguenot Society of America. Vol. 1. 8vo.]

THE Huguenot Society of America has very appropriately begun its publishing work by printing the early Registers of the first French church in this city. The volume is edited by its present rector, the Rev. A. V. Wittmeyer, who is also the secretary of the Society. In an introduction he gives a brief account of its ecclesiastical history, from which we learn that the first French service on Manhattan Island was held in 1628, but that there is a great uncertainty as to the manner in which the religious needs of the French were supplied during the next fifty years. In 1682 the Rev. Pierre Daillé, "the Apostle of the Huguenots in America," gathered a congregation which held its services in the Dutch church within the fort. Six years later, the number of the French having increased on account of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes to about a fourth of the population, a second congregation was formed with the Rev. Pierre Peiret for its minister. This body immediately built a meeting-house in Petty-Coat-Lane on the site now occupied by the Produce Exchange. Here they continued to worship, being soon joined by M. Daillé's people, until 1704, when a new building was erected in Pine Street. From this place they removed in 1834 to Franklin Street, and again in 1863 to their present church in West Twenty-second Street, having united with the Episcopal Church in 1803. Pictures of all but the first of these buildings are contained in this volume. It is hardly necessary to say more of their history during their independent existence than that it was marked by the ordinary incidents in the life of a church. At first it was very flourishing,

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but by the end of M. L. Rou's pastorate of forty years its membership was "reduced to an inconsiderable handful," partly from natural and unavoidable causes, partly from an unfortunate dissension between its two ministers. A few years later another struggle for the possession of it by rival parties in the congregation still further reduced its strength, and at the beginning of the Revolution the building was closed for a period of twenty years, being used for a part of the time by the English "for the reception of ordnance stores." In 1796 the church was reorganized and maintained a feeble life for a few years, when it joined the Episcopal Church "under the corporate name of *The French Church du Saint Esprit.*"

The registers now printed comprise the baptismal, marriage, and death records from 1688 to 1804, consisting of about a thousand entries. They are very incomplete, the baptisms being most numerous, the burials least so. The editor has very properly endeavored to print them exactly as they stand; "even evident mistakes . . . have been scrupulously followed." Most of the entries are without interest except to the genealogist, and only a few have a slight historical value. One of the earliest notes the fact that the church held an "extraordinary" thanksgiving service on Wednesday, July 17, 1689, for the accession of William and Mary. The following marriage entry differs somewhat from the others, but will serve as an illustration of them all: "*Mariage*—Le 23 Aoust 1763 entre midi et une heure, jay marié par Licence dans la Maison de Mr. Paystre située dans la borée [Bowery], et tenue a louage par le Sieur Moore; Pierre l'oreillard et Catherine Moore; en presence des familles l'aureillard et Moore, de mr. de Paystre et sa Soeur, Made. dilo, et Madlle. fanchon Moyon. enregistré par moy Pasteur Soussigné, ce 12*e* 9*bre* 1763. Jean Carle Pasteur." Following this is a similar entry of the marriage of "Jean l'Aureillard et Anne Moore," at the same place and time. The baptismal records all follow the same general form, the names of parents and sponsors being given. In one instance, at the baptism of a child born "hors le mariage," there is added, "Fils, autant qu'on l'a pû decouvrir de," etc. A child of two unmarried slaves in 1760 is presented by the mistress of the mother, the godparents being baptized slaves. About the same time, the minister, having entered a child as illegitimate, notes, "Naturel selon l'Evangile," because the mother had another husband living in Europe, but "legitime selon les lois de ce Pais, parcequ'il n'ont eu aucune Nouvelle du Mari de Marguerite Sando, depuis plus d'année que la loy de ce Pais ne demande pour permettre le Mariage a ds gens ds ce Cas ce que je déclare P. servir comme de Besoin sera," There are also several interesting entries of abjuration of the Roman Catholic faith. At the end of the volume are given some historical documents relating to the French Protestants of New York during the period covered by the registers, the most of which have been printed before.

The value of such a work as this depends largely on the character of its index, and here, we regret to say, we find it wanting. There is no index whatever of the names of persons and places mentioned in the introduction and historical documents, nor of the names of places in the records. The names of some persons given in the records are omitted entirely, while few are referred to in every instance in which they appear. It is difficult, also, to find some names, as they are entered under an orthography entirely different from that which may be in the entry; for instance, *Fiton* l is to be found only under Guiton, while the Lorillards are all entered under Leaureillard, a spelling which does not appear anywhere in the records as printed. In every case of marked varied spellings, cross-references should have been given from the less to the better known. With this exception, we have only praise for the manner in which this initial volume of what we trust will be a long and valuable series of publications has been issued, both as regards the pains taking labors of its editor and the beauty of its typography and general appearance. Though its importance to the historical student will be comparatively slight, to the genealogist it will prove a mine of great value, containing as it does the records of families closely connected with the annals, not only of this city, but of the nation.

Chronicle of the Coach. Charing Cross to Ilfracombe. By John Denison Champlin, Jr. Illustrated by Edward L. Chichester. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1886.

THERE is no pleasanter "outing" than a long coach-drive in England; and the narrator of this particular excursion was happy both in his party and in his route. The names of his companions are disclosed pseudonymously, if one may say so, for the disguise of the false name is easily penetrated in the case of those members who may be considered public men; but it would be unfair to withdraw the veil further than the author has chosen to do. There can be no objection, however, to saying that the "Mæcenas" of the party, who is engaged in sowing American sedition along the roadside with so much cheerfulness and in so humorous a way, is Mr. Andrew Carnegie, for whom one gets to have some warmth of regard as he is represented on this journey; and the rest of the company, which includes both sexes, are, whether distinguished or undistinguished, excellent acquaintances, though they are pale and shadowy creatures beside the genial and always triumphant democrat. The route lay due west from London to the sea, through Guildford, Winchester, Salisbury, Old Sarum, Stonehenge, Wilton, Sherborne, Axminster, Exeter, Dartmoor, Bideford and Clovelly. These names tell their own story, and apprise the reader of what he will find in the volume as a book of travel. The writer is stronger in the historical than in the descriptive portions; he renders a good account of his studies of the antiquities of the old cities and towns, and he relieves the dryness of these tourist facts with a goodly spice of the tourist banter, the slight incidents of travel which are nothing in themselves, but which light up a whole afternoon and make it eventful at the time, and he keeps the reader "on the go," as he would say, with the party without any pause. The account of the look of the country, on the other hand, is very meagre and general, perhaps because it is already made familiar to us by such able and glowing pens, and the author prefers to quote rather than compose. Once his selection, Cobbett's account of his return to his boyhood home at Guildford, is a true felicity. The narrative is very readable, and contains the story of a good time, independently of its cathedrals, plains, and inns, its Tors and moors of many prænomens, and its odor of literary reminiscence; and the illustrations are of the simple, sketchy kind which seem like artist's notes by the way, and they adorn and enliven the pages. The whole affords a happy instance of aggressive democracy abroad in a pleasant setting of English country and English friends.

The Mahogany Tree. By William Makepeace Thackeray. With illustrations by Frank T. Merrill. Boston: S. E. Cassino. Large 4to.

THIS Christmas song, reprinted from *Punch*, is given here complete, including a stanza which is generally omitted from the volumes of Thackeray's ballads and from collections of verse. There are, then, eight stanzas; and by dint of giving each stanza once in sober typography and again in fantastic letters mingled with figures and arabesques, and to each stanza still a third page of appropriate decoration for one suggestive line, with preliminary and final illustrations, and head and tail-pieces to preface, and the like, the artist and his publishers have made up a volume. The pictures are not very beautiful; there is a certain perfunctory look about them, as if neither the designer nor his public could get up much interest in the subject. This for the figure-pieces, where the punch-drinkers and smokers of long pipes are trying to be merry; as for the decorative adjuncts, they do not greatly adorn the book, and the drawings of natural scenery and details of plants and the like are peculiarly unsuccessful. But what a task is this that was set the artist! No man need be ashamed if his invention fails in a so long and so unaided effort. The poem is one which does not promise many separate motives of design.

Irish History for English Readers. By W. Stephenson Gregg. Harper & Bros. 1886.

THIS is an admirable handbook of Irish history, and would be an assistance, especially at present, to any person in considering the vexed politics of Ireland. The balance of the narrative is well preserved, 80 of the 207 pages composing the book being devoted to the period since the Union, really the most important of all to understand in its bearings upon present politics, and too often disposed of in a few pages. The blemishes are not such as to detract from its general usefulness. We miss from the "List of Authorities" some works without which no one should face the study of Irish history—such as Richey's 'Lectures' and Prendergast's 'Cromwellian Settlement'—although we trace their influence upon the narrative. No Irish scholar or antiquarian qualified for research has since Petrie's time refused his assent to the theory that the Round Towers are Christian erections. We do not think there is ground for the continuance of the assertion that Cromwell slaughtered every man, woman, and child in Drogheda and Wexford after their capture. We should like to know the name of the unhappy compositor who first mistook for a turned comma (') the "c" in the contraction of "Mc" for "Mac." Considerable confusion, if not family feuds, has ensued from that simple error. Either Mr. Gregg or his printer has gone a step further and altered the turned comma (') into an apostrophe ('). However, this is all beside the merits of the book. Mr. Gregg's is a valuable short history of Ireland, and a worthy addition to "Harper's Handy Series."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Baker, J. John Westacott: A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Canfield, C. W. The American Annual of Photography and Photographic Times Almanac for 1887. Scovill Manufacturing Co. $1.00.
Laurie, Prof. S. S. The Rise and Early Constitution of Universities. With a Survey of Mediæval Education. D. Appleton & Co.
Macray, Rev. W. D. The Pilgrimage to Parnassus, with two parts of the Return from Parnassus. Three Comedies Performed in St. John's College, Cambridge, MDXCVII—MDCI. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Matthews, B. Ballads of Books. George J. Coombes.
Mayor, J. B. Chapters on English Metre. London. C. J. Clay & Sons. $1.00.
Nichols, J. M. Perry's Saints; or, the Fighting Parson's Regiment in the War of the Rebellion. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. $1.25.
Prévost, L'Abbé. The Story of Manon Lescaut, and of the Chevalier des Grieux. From the edition of 1753. F. T. Jones & Co.
Shaw, G. B. Cashel Byron's Profession: A Novel. Harper's Handy Series. 25 cents.
Stephen, L. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. IX. Canute—Chaloner. Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Welldon, J. E. C. The Rhetoric of Aristotle. Translated. Macmillan & Co. $2.00.
Woods, M. A. A First School Poetry Book. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Woodward, P. H. The Secret Service of the Post-office Department. Hartford, Conn.: Winter & Co.
Woolson, Constance Fenimore. Castle Nowhere: Lake Country Sketches. Harper & Brothers.
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